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LIFE OF SIR HANS SLOANE.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

SIR Hans Sloane, baronet, eminently diſtinguiſhed as a phyſician and a naturaliſt, was of Scotch extraction, his father, Alexander Sloane, being at the head of that colony of Scots which King James I. ſettled in the north of Ireland, where our author was born, at Killieagh, on the 16th of April, 1660. At a very early period, he diſplayed a ſtrong inclination for natural hiſtory, and this propenſity being encouraged by a ſuitable education, he employed thoſe hours which young people generally loſe by purſuing low and trifling amuſements, in the ſtudy of Nature, and contemplating her works. When about ſixteen, he was attacked by a ſpitting of blood, which threatened to be attended with conſiderable danger, and which interrupted the regular courſe of his application for three years: he had, however, already learned enough of phyſic to know that a malady of this kind was not to be removed ſuddenly, and he prudently abſtained from wine and other liquors, that were likely to increaſe it.

By ſtrictly obſerving this ſevere regimen, which, in ſome meaſure, he continued ever after, he was enabled to prolong his life beyond the ordinary bounds; being an example of the truth of his own favourite maxim, that ſobriety, temperance, and moderation, are the beſt and moſt powerful preſervatives that Nature has granted to mankind.

As ſoon as he recovered from this infirmity, he reſolved to perfect himſelf in the different branches of phyſic, which was the profeſſion he had made choice of, and with this view he repaired to London, where he hoped to receive that aſſiſtance which he could not find in his own country.

On his arrival in the metropolis, he entered himſelf as a pupil to the great Stafforth, an excellent chemiſt, bred under the illuſtrious Stahl; and by his inſtructions he gained a perfect

knowledge of the compoſition and preparation of the different kinds of medicines then in uſe. At the ſame time, he ſtudied botany at the celebrated garden at Chelſea, aſſiduouſly attended the public lectures of anatomy and phyſic, and, in ſhort, neglected nothing that he thought likely to prove ſerviceable to him in his future practice. His principal merit, however, was his knowledge of natural hiſtory, and it was this part of his character which introduced him early into the acquaintance of Mr. Boyle and Mr. Ray, two of the moſt eminent perſons, in that way, of the age. His intimacy with theſe diſtinguiſhed characters continued as long as they lived, and as he was careful to communicate to them every object of curioſity that attracted his attention, the obſervations which he occaſionally made often excited their admiration and obtained their applauſe.

After ſtudying four years at London, with unremitting ſeverity, Mr. Sloane determined to viſit foreign countries, for farther improvement. In this view, he ſet out for France, in the company of two other ſtudents, and having croſſed to Dieppe, proceeded to Paris. In the way thither, they were elegantly entertained by the famous Mr. Lemery, the elder, and, in return, Mr. Sloane preſented that eminent chemiſt with a ſpecimen of four different kinds of phoſphorus, of which, upon the credit of other writers, Mr. Lemery had treated in his book of chemiſtry, though he had never ſeen any of them.

At Paris Mr. Sloane lived as he had done in London. He attended the hoſpitals, heard the lectures of Tournefort, De Verney, and other eminent maſters; viſited all the literati, who received him with particular marks of eſteem, and employed himſelf wholly in ſtudy.

From Paris Mr. Sloane went to Montpellier, and, being furniſhed with letters of recommendation from Mr. Tournefort to Mr. Chirac, then chancellor of that univerſity, he found eaſy acceſs, through his means, to all the learned men of the province, particularly to Mr. Magnol, whom he always accompanied in his botanical excurſions in the environs of that city, where he beheld, with pleaſure and admiration, the ſpontaneous productions of Nature, and learned, under his inſtructions, to claſs them in a proper manner.

Having here found an ample field for contemplation, which was entirely ſuited to his taſte, he took leave of his two companions, whom a curioſity of a different kind led into Italy.

After ſpending a whole year in collecting plants, he travelled through Languedoc, with the ſame deſign; and paſſing through Thouloufe and Bourdeaux returned to Paris, where he made a ſhort ſtay. In the latter end of the year 1684, he ſet out for England, with an intention of ſettling there as a phyſician. On his arrival in London, he made it his firſt buſineſs to viſit his two illuſtrious friends, Mr. Ray and Mr. Boyle, in order that he might communicate to them the diſcoveries he had made in his travels. The latter he found at home, but the former had retired to Eſſex, to which place Mr. Sloane tranſmitted a great variety of plants and ſeeds, which Mr. Ray has deſcribed in his *Hiſtory of Plants*, and for which he makes a proper acknowledgment.

About the year 1706 our author became acquainted with the celebrated Sydenham, who ſoon contracted ſo warm an affection for him that he took him into his houſe, and recommended him, in the ſtrongeſt manner, to his patients. He had not been long in London before he was propoſed by Dr. Martin Liſter as a candidate to be admitted a member of the Royal Society, on the 26th of November, 1684, and being approved, he was elected on the 21ſt of January following.

In 1685, he communicated ſome curioſities to the ſociety, and in July, the ſame year, he was a candidate for the office of their aſſiſtant ſecretary, but without ſucceſs, as he was obliged

to

to give way to the ſuperior intereſt of his competitor, Dr. Halley. On the 12th of April, 1687, he was choſen a fellow of the College of Phyſicians in London, and the ſame year his friend and fellow traveller, Dr. Tancred Robinſon, having mentioned to the ſociety the plant called the *ſtar of the earth*, as a remedy newly diſcovered for the bite of a mad dog, Dr. Sloane acquainted them that this virtue of the plant was to be found in a book called De Grey's Farriery; and that he knew a man who had cured with it twenty couple of dogs. This obſervation he made on the 13th of July, and on the 12th of September following he embarked at Portſmouth for Jamaica with the Duke of Albemarle, who had been lately appointed governor of that iſland. The doctor attended his grace in quality of phyſician, and arrived at Jamaica on the 19th of December following.

Here a new field was opened for freſh diſcoveries in natural productions; but the world would have been deprived of the fruits of them, had not our author, by incredible application, converted, as we may ſay, his minutes into hours. The Duke of Albemarle died ſoon after he landed, and the Ducheſs determined ro return to England, whenever an anſwer ſhould be received to the letter ſhe had ſent to court on that melancholy occaſion. As Dr. Sloane could not think of leaving her grace in her diſtreſs, whilſt the reſt of her retinue were preparing for their departure, he improved it in making collections of natural curioſities; ſo that though his whole ſtay at Jamaica was not above fifteen months, he brought together ſuch a prodigious number of plants, that on his return to England Mr. Ray was aſtoniſhed that one man could procure in one iſland, and in ſo ſhort a ſpace, ſo vaſt a variety.

On his arrival in London, he applied himſelf to the practice of his profeſſion, and ſoon became ſo eminent, that he was choſen phyſician to Chriſt's Hoſpital, on the 17th of October, 1694: and this office he held till the year 1730, when, on account of his great age and infirmities, he found it neceſſary to reſign. It is ſomewhat ſingular, and redounds much to the Doctor's honor, that though he received the emoluments of his office punctually, becauſe he would not lay down a precedent which might hurt his ſucceſſors, yet he conſtantly applied the money to the relief of thoſe who were the greateſt objects of compaſſion in the hoſpital, that it might never be ſaid he enriched himſelf by giving health to the poor. He had been elected ſecretary to the Royal Society on the 30th of November, 1693, and upon this occaſion he revived the publication of the philoſophical tranſactions, which had been omitted for ſome time. He continued to be the editor of this work till the year 1712, and the volumes which appeared during that period are monuments of his induſtry and ingenuity, many of the pieces contained in them being written by himſelf.

In the mean time he publiſhed *Catalogus Plantarum quæ in Inſula Jamaicâ ſponte proveniunt*, &c. *Seu Prodromi Hiſtoriæ Naturalis pars prima*, which he dedicated to the Royal Society and College of Phyſicians. About the ſame time he formed the plan of a diſpenſary, where the poor might be furniſhed at prime coſt with ſuch medicines as their ſeveral maladies might require, which he afterwards carried into execution, with the aſſiſtance of the preſident and other members of the College of Phyſicians.

Our author's thirſt for natural knowledge ſeems to have been born with him, ſo that his cabinet of curioſities may be ſaid to have commenced with his being. He was continually enriching and enlarging it; and the fame, which in the courſe of a few years, it had acquired, brought every thing that was curious in art or nature to be firſt offered to him for purchaſe. Theſe acquiſitions, however, encreaſed it but very ſlowly in compariſon of the augmentation it received in 1701, by the death of William Courten, Eſq. a gentleman who had employed all his time,

time, and the greater part of his fortune, in collecting rarities, and who bequeated the whole to Dr. Sloane, on condition of his paying certain debts and legacies with which he had charged it. Theſe terms our author accepted, and he executed the will of the donor with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs; on which account ſome people have ſaid, that he purchaſed Mr. Courten's curioſities at a dear rate.

In 1707 the firſt volume of Dr. Sloane's Natural Hiſtory of Jamaica appeared in folio, though the publication of the ſecond was delayed till 1725. By this very uſeful, as well as magnificent work, the materia medica was enriched with a great number of excellent drugs, not before known. In 1708 the Doctor was elected a foreign member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, in the room of Mr. Tſchirnaus, an honor ſo much the greater, as we were then at war with France, and the queen's expreſs conſent was neceſſary before he could accept it. In proportion as his credit roſe among the learned, his practice encreaſed among people of rank: Queen Anne herſelf frequently conſulted him, and in her laſt illneſs was blooded by him.

On the advancement of George I. to the throne, that prince, on the 3d of April, 1716, created the Doctor a baronet, an hereditary title of honor, to which no Engliſh phyſician had ever before attained; and at the ſame time made him phyſician general to the army, in which ſtation he continued till 1727, when he was appointed phyſician in ordinary to George II. He attended the royal family till his death, and was particularly favored by Queen Caroline, who placed the greateſt confidence in his preſcriptions. In the mean time he had been unanimouſly choſen one of the elects of the College of Phyſicians, June 1, 1716, and he was elected preſident of the ſame body on September the 30th, 1719, an office which he held for ſixteen years. During that period he not only gave the higheſt proofs of his zeal and affiduity in the diſcharge of his duty, but in 1721 made a preſent to that ſociety of an hundred pounds, and ſo far remitted a very conſiderable debt, which the corporation owed him, as to accept it in ſuch ſmall ſums as were leaſt inconvenient to the ſtate of their affairs. Sir Hans was no leſs liberal to other learned bodies. He had no ſooner purchaſed the manor of Chelſea, than he gave the company of apothecaries the entire freehold of their botanical garden there, upon condition only that they ſhould preſent yearly to the Royal Society fifty new plants, till the number ſhould amount to two thouſand *. He gave beſides ſeveral other conſiderable donations for the improvement of this garden, the ſituation of which, on the banks of the Thames, and in the neighbourhood of the capital, was ſuch as to render it uſeful in two reſpects: Firſt, by producing the moſt rare medicinal plants, and ſecondly, by ſerving as an excellent ſchool for young botaniſts; an advantage which he himſelf had derived from it in the early part of his life.

The death of Sir Iſaac Newton, which happened in 1727, made way for the advancement of Sir Hans to the preſidency of the Royal Society. He had been vice-preſident, and frequently

* This garden was firſt eſtabliſhed by the company in 1673, and having after that period been ſtocked by them with a great variety of plants, for the improvement of botany, Sir Hans, in order to encourage ſo ſerviceble an undertaking, granted to the company the inheritance of it, being part of his eſtate and manor of Chelſea, on condition that it ſhould be for ever preſerved as a phyſic garden. As a proof of its being ſo maintained, he obliged the company, in conſideration of the ſaid grant, to preſent yearly to the Royal Society, in one of their weekly meetings, fifty ſpecimens of plants that had grown in the garden the preceding year, and which were all to be ſpecifically diſtinct from each other, until the number of two thouſand ſhould be completed. This number was completed in the year 1761. In 1733 the company erected a marble ſtatue of Sir Hans, executed by Ryſbrac, which is placed upon a pedeſtal in the centre of the garden, with a Latin inſcription, expreſſing his donation, and the deſign and advantages of it.

quently ſat in the chair for that great man; and by his long connection with this learned body he had contracted ſo ſtrong an affection for it, that he made them a preſent of an hundred guineas, cauſed a curious buſt of King Charles II. its founder, to be erected in the great hall where it met, and, as is ſaid, was very inſtrumental in procuring Sir Godfrey Copley's benefaction of a medal of the value of five guineas, to be annually given as an honorary mark of diſtinction, to the perſon who communicates the beſt experiments to the Society.

On his being raiſed to the chair, Sir Hans laid aſide all thoughts of further promotion, and applied himſelf wholly to the faithful diſcharge of the duties of the offices which he enjoyed. In this laudable occupation he employed his time from 1727 to 1740, when, at the age of fourſcore, he formed a reſolution of quitting the ſervice of the public, and of living for himſelf. With this view he reſigned the preſidency of the Royal Society, much againſt the inclination of that reſpectable body, who choſe Martin Folkes, Eſq. to ſucceed him, and in a public aſſembly thanked him for the great and eminent ſervices he had rendered them. In the month of January, 1741, he began to remove his library, and his cabinet of rarities, from his houſe in Bloomſbury to that at Chelſea; and on the 12th of March following, having ſettled all his affairs, he retired thither himſelf, to enjoy in peaceful tranquillity the remains of a well ſpent life. He did not, however, bury himſelf in that ſolitude which excludes men from ſociety. He received at Chelſea, as he had done in London, the viſits of people of diſtinction, of all learned foreigners, and of the royal family, who ſometimes did him the honour to wait on him: but what was ſtill more to his praiſe, he never refuſed admittance or advice to rich or poor, who came to conſult him concerning their health. Not contented with this contracted manner of doing good, he now, during his retreat, preſented to the public ſuch uſeful remedies as ſucceſs had warranted, during the courſe of a long continued practice. Among theſe is the efficacious receipt for diſtempers in the eyes, and his remedy for the bite of a mad dog.

During the whole courſe of his life, Sir Hans had lived with ſo much temperance, as had preſerved him from feeling the infirmities of old age; but in his ninetieth year he began to complain of pains, and to be ſenſible of an univerſal decay. He was often heard to ſay, that the approach of death brought no terrors along with it; that he had long expected the ſtroke, and that he was prepared to receive it whenever the great Author of his being ſhould think fit. After a ſhort illneſs of three days, he died on the 11th of January, 1752, and was interred on the 18th at Chelſea, in the ſame vault with his lady, the ſolemnity being attended with the greateſt concourſe of people, of all ranks and conditions, that had ever been ſeen before on the like occaſion.

His funeral ſermon was preached by Dr. Zachary Pearce, then Biſhop of Bangor, who forbore to enlarge upon his exalted qualities, on account of an expreſs prohibition which he had received from his own mouth a little before his death. Such was his piety, that he thought it a degree of profanation to debaſe, with the praiſes of human excellencies, the pulpit which ought to be devoted to the purpoſe of diſplaying the greatneſs of the Supreme Being, and of inſtructing mankind in his laws.

The writer of our author's eloge having obſerved, that in his perſon he was tall and well proportioned, proceeds to delineate his character in the following words: "His manners were "eaſy, free and engaging, and his "converſation was ſprightly, famil-"liar, and obliging. Nothing could "equal his courteſy to ſtrangers, and "he was always ready to explain to "them his whole cabinet. Once a "week he kept open houſe for gen-"tlemen of all ranks, and particu-"larly for his brethren of the Royal "Society

" Society who thought fit to viſit him. " The ſad conſequences of his death " were ſeverely felt by the poor, to " whom he was every way a liberal " benefactor. He was a governor of " almoſt every hoſpital in and about " London, to each of which he gave " an hundred pounds in his lifetime, " and a conſiderable ſum at his death. " Whatever propoſal ſeemed likely to " promote the public good, could al- " ways command his moſt zealous en- " deavours to advance it. He did " every thing in his power to forward " the eſtabliſhment of the colony in " Georgia of 1732, and of the Found- " ling-Hoſpital in 1739, and he form- " ed the plan for bringing up the chil- " dren, which experience has ſhewn to " be the beſt that could be deviſed. " If he found duplicates of any book " in his ſtudy, his manner was, to " ſend one of the copies to the Col- " lege of Phyſicians, if the work was " medical, or to the Bodleian Library " at Oxford, if it treated on other " ſubjects. He was the firſt in Eng- " land who introduced into general " practice the uſe of bark, not only " in fevers, but in a variety of other " diſtempers, particularly in nervous " diſorders, mortifications, and vio- " lent hæmorrhages: he frequently " took it himſelf for the ſpitting of " blood, to which he was always more " or leſs ſubject. He likewiſe gave " a ſanction to the practice of inocu- " lation, by performing that operation " on two daughters of the royal fa- " mily, which did more to eſtabliſh " the uſe of it than all the treatiſes " that were ever written on the ſub- " ject."

Sir Hans being extremely ſolicitous left his cabinet of curioſities, which he had taken ſo much pains to collect, ſhould be again diſſipated at his death, and being at the ſame time unwilling that ſo large a portion of his fortune ſhould be loſt to his children, he bequeathed it to the public, on condition that twenty thouſand pounds ſhould be made good by parliament to his family. This ſum, though large in appearance, was ſcarcely more than the intrinſic value of the gold and ſilver medals, the ores and precious ſtones that were found in it; for in his laſt will he declares, that the firſt coſt of the whole amounted at leaſt to fifty thouſand pounds. Beſides his library, conſiſting of more than 50,000 volumes, 347 of which were illuſtrated with cuts finely engraven, and coloured from nature, there were 3560 manuſcripts, and an infinite number of rare and curious works of every kind. The Parliament accepted the legacy, and fulfilled the conditions. Sir Hans married, in 1695, Elizabeth, daughter of Alderman Langley of London, who died in 1724, after ſhe had brought him one ſon, who died young, and three daughters, the youngeſt of whom died alſo in her infancy. Sarah, the eldeſt, married George Stanley, Eſq. of Poultons, in the county of Hants; and Elizabeth, the ſecond, married the Right Honourable Lord Cadogan, Colonel of the ſecond troop of Horſe Guards, and Governor of Tilbury Fort and of Graveſend.

An Account of the CHINESE and ſome of the ancient GRECIAN DANCES.

[*Continued from page* 201.]

THE moſt grave and majeſtic dance was the *hyporchematic*-dance; it was executed to the lyre, and accompanied with the voice.

The dance which Theſeus inſtituted at his return from Crete, and which he himſelf danced at the head of a numerous and ſplendid band of youth round the altar of Apollo, was compoſed of three parts; the *ſtrophe*, the *antiſtrophe*, and the *ſtationary*.

In the *ſtrophe*, the movements were from the right to the left.

In the *antiſtrophe*, from the left to the right.

In the *ſtationary*, they danced before

fore the altar; ſo that the *ſtationary* did not mean an abſolute pauſe or reſt, but only a more ſlow, grave, religious movement.

Plutarch, in his life of Theſeus, thinks he ſees in this dance a profound myſtery; he is perſuaded that by the *ſtrophe* is indicated the motion of the world from eaſt to weſt; by the *antiſtrophe* the motion of the planets from the weſt to the eaſt; and by the *ſtationary* the ſtability of the earth. However, Theſeus gave to this the name of *Gernanos*, or *Crane*, becauſe the figures which characterized it, bore a reſemblance to thoſe deſcribed by cranes in their flight.

We ſhall not inſiſt longer on the hiſtory of the ancients, the idea we have juſt given of it will ſuffice to ſenſibly ſatisfy our readers, how much the ſigns, or, if the expreſſion may be allowed, the hieroglyphics of this art, have loſt their dignity and importance. The art, confined at preſent to imitate the movements of muſic, which is itſelf often without any meaning or object of imitation, expreſſed in thoſe times, not only the actions, but the inclinations, the cuſtoms, the manners; it figured the greateſt events; formed the body to ſtrength, to agility, to dexterity, and gave graces to it: it awakened and cultivated in the ſoul the perception and ſentiments of proportion and harmony: in ſhort, it comprehended and regulated the whole *art* of *geſture*, that art, now-a-days ſo arbitrary, ſo uncertain, and ſo contracted. M. Dacier could not, however, believe that muſic and dancing could extend to the whole body of the ancient drama; he even owns, that he could not conceive how they could be aſſociated to the tragic actions. This, in other reſpects, very learned men did not give attention enough to the conſideration, that the proportion of ſounds and movements, which, ſtrictly ſpeaking, conſtitute both muſic and dancing, reigned even in the common language of the people. Upon which he lays himſelf out, rather taſteleſly to apologize for them: when he rather ought the more to have admired them; eſpecially thoſe remarkable people (the Greeks and Romans) who put number and cadence into every kind of their exerciſes and expreſſions.

Before we treat of the Chineſe dances, be it allowed us to quote a paſſage from Plato, which will doubtleſs ſerve to confirm, what has been often advanced, of the nearneſs of affinity between the Chineſe and Egyptians. "Among the Egyptians," (ſays that philoſopher, Book 3d on the Laws) "every kind of dances "and ſongs are conſecrated to the "deities. They have for certain "times of the year inſtituted feſti-"vals and ſolemnities in honour of "the gods, and of the offspring "of the gods of the genii; they "have regulated and preſcribed the "different ſacrifices, which are re-"ſpectably ſuitable to the different "deities: they have characterized "the ſongs and dances which are to "be employed at each ſacrifice, and "have forbidden the confounding "theſe dances and ſongs, under pe-"nalty of being for ever excluded "the ſacred myſteries."

It would be difficult to aſcertain with preciſion, in what it was that the dances conſiſted, attributed to the ſix firſt families that were on the throne ſince *Hoang-ty*. If the dialogue between Confucius (con-fut-ze) and *Pin-mou-kia*, had not been preſerved to us, we ſhould know nothing of the dance of *Ou-ouang*, that famous dance, which, in its time, uſed to produce ſuch great effect. We may, however, form ſome idea of the ancient dances, by thoſe of which there remains to us ſome account, and judge by thoſe of the nature and characters of the others.

The dancers advanced from the north part; alluding thereby to *Ou-ouang*, who, being a native of one of the northern provinces of the empire, came on to the ſouthern ones, where he made his reſidence for ſome time.

Scarce did they advance a few ſteps, before,

before, on a ſudden changing the order in which they came, they threw themſelves into the figure of combatants, expreſſing by their attitudes, geſtures, and evolutions, an order of battle, and the fate of the conquerors and conquered. In this they repreſented *Ou-ouang*, who gave battle to *Tcheou-ouang*, defeated him, and remained maſter of the empire, by extinguiſhing for ever the dynaſty of the *changes*.

In the third part of this dance the dancers advanced more towards the ſouth, to repreſent the march of *Ou-ouang*, who, after the death of *Tcheou-ouang*, penetrated more ſouth of the empire, and ſubdued the provinces which had not as yet acknowledged him for their lawful ſovereign.

In the *fourth* part the dancers formed a ſort of line, which was a repreſentation of the boundaries aſſigned to the empire by the conquerors.

In the *fifth* part they repreſented *Tcheou koung-tom*, and *Chao-koung-che*, one at the right hand, the other at the left hand of the conqueror, who aſſiſted him by their councils, their activity, and their wiſe adminiſtration, to bear the heavy burthen of the government of the empire.

In the *ſixth* part, the dancers, making a pauſe, and unmoveable as mountains, repreſented the reſpect, homage, and ſubjection, which, at length, all the provinces of the empire paid to *Ou ouang*, acknowledging him their ſovereign lord and emperor.

Such is the ſummary deſcription of the dance of *Ou-ouang*.

Some further particulars may be added on this occaſion. It is ſaid, that in the time that the dancers ſtood unmoveable, like mountains, they held the *Kan* in their hands. This attitude alluded to the repoſe which the conqueror enjoyed, after he had reduced every thing to quiet and order. The geſtures and the evolutions which were made after the repreſentation of the martial engagement, expreſſed, in their figures, the cares, the attentions, the vigilance and activity of the wiſe miniſters, on whom the conqueror reſted the burthen of his affairs.

The pauſe or reſt which the dancers took, in the place where they had danced, repreſented the continual attention and care which *Tcheou-koung tom*, and *Chao-koung-che*, took to find out proper means to procure the tranquillity and care of the ſubjects of the empire.

The dancers divided into two bands, and, without quitting their places, performed a number of evolutions. By this they repreſented the force and abilities of *Ou ouang*, and the fatigues he underwent to make himſelf maſter of the empire.

Towards the end of the dance they ſeparated in a hurry, and all on a ſudden pauſed, and remained unmoveable. By this they ſignified the rapidity of the conqueſt by which the provinces of the empire were ſubjected to *Ou-ouang*, and the ſhort ſpace of time during which the emperor waited for their homage.

Ultimately, the dancers ſtanding upright, without making any geſture, repreſented the *Ou-ouang* waiting that the neighbouring kings, or tributaries to the empire, ſhould come, in their turns, to acknowledge him for their lawful emperor.

Such was nearly the ſignification of this dance: a dance admirably well calculated at once for pomp and inſtructiveneſs, retracing to thoſe who know the hiſtory of China, one of the moſt famous events in the annals of that empire. The compoſer of it had not leſs in view the tranſmiſſion of it to poſterity, than to make his cotemporaries ſenſible of the virtue, wiſdom, and valour of that great emperor, who was the founder of the dynaſty of *Tcheou*.

There is in the *Che-king*, (*Cho-king*) a canticle, intitled, Ta-min-che, in which are the following words, "*Hea-*
"*ven has its eye upon you: beware of*
"*having a perverſe heart.*" While theſe words were ſinging, the dancers remained motionleſs. There was alſo in the ſame canticle, "*Take for your*
"*maſter the wiſe* Tay-koun-Ouang.

"*The*

" *The reputation which he gained in* " Yang-vang will be immortal, *like* " *himſelf.*" Theſe words were ſung immediately after the dancers reſuming their evolutions.

Little by little the ancient cuſtoms went out of practice. The emperor *Kao-ty* had a great mind to revive ſome of them. He compoſed a poem called *Ta-ſoung-che*, which he ordered to be ſet to muſic, and to be ſung during the dances. *Tay-ki ſoung* alſo wanted to tread in the footſteps of the ancients. After the example of *Oe-ouang*, he had muſic compoſed to be executed, while the army was putting in order of battle.

The ſame *Tay-hi-ſoung* had a martial dance compoſed, which, together with the muſic for it, was calculated to inſpire the ſoldiery with that valour which forms heroes. The books which contained a deſcription of theſe dances, were for a long time preſerved, but were at length loſt, without any hope of recovery.

As in the five notes of muſic there is to be found the image of the five elements, there ought in like manner to be found the repreſentation of the actions natural to men; ſuch were the dances of the ancients. The dancers bowed their head, lifted it, looking up to heaven, moved to the right and left, advanced, receded; ſtopped, turned; in ſhort, all their geſtures, attitudes, evolutions, looks tended to expreſs what they wanted to repreſent.

The dancers now-a-days are very different: the dancers content themſelves with adopting their movements to the air played by the muſicians; and this is called *dancing*. The virtue of the ancients is forgotten; no wonder, then, that their muſic and dancers have been equally conſigned to oblivion. The modern muſic is bad; it ſuits our dances, and both incur the like cenſure.

In proceſs of time there was a muſic compoſed, which was indeed ſaid to reſemble the ancient ya-yo; they had both the ſame name, but there was a great difference between them. The muſic and dances that came after theſe were ſtill worſe, and continued degenerating.

Chao is a dance ſo called from an inſtrument which the dancer held in his hand. This inſtrument was in figure of a Q, or an inverted S. The Kings of *Lore* had, for perpetuity, the privilege of ſacrificing to heaven, and to the earth, with the ſame ceremonies that are practiſed in the empire by the ſon of heaven himſelf, in the precinct of the palace, the ſame as at the Emperor's. The muſicians, placed at the bottom of the hall, played their airs of the dance *Siang*, of the dances *Kan* and *Tſi*, and of all the grand dances. The dances were in number eight times eight, and the muſic was the ſame. So great a privilege was granted to the Kings of *Lore*, purely to honour, in their perſons, that of the great *Tcheou-koung-tan*. The privilege ſubſiſts to this day.

To the EDITORS of the LITERARY MAGAZINE.

Gentlemen,

I Have read with much attention your Correſpondent's arguments in favour of the abolition of the ſlave trade. It does not become me to doubt the ſincerity of his profeſſions, or the honeſty of his heart; but he will excuſe me if I recommend, for the future, that ſubjects of ſuch national and commercial importance ſhould be viewed with more argument and leſs declamation. It is a very eaſy matter to declaim in favour of humanity, to ſhew that it ſhould be always conſidered antecedently to policy, and even to convince ſuch as are previouſly diſpoſed to believe it, that a ſet of men, who are repreſented as attentive only to their own intereſt, ſhould act in diametrical oppoſition to it; that they ſhould riſk large capitals, engage in

uncertain undertakings, and incur the odium of all ſuch as can condemn them with impunity, for no other purpoſe than that of oppreſſing their fellow creatures, and to no other end than that of injuring their property. That a ſingle individual ſhould, for a time, be ſo far loſt to common ſenſe and propriety, the characteriſtic inconſiſtency of mankind might induce one to credit; but that all the inhabitants of the vaſt Atlantic Archipelago ſhould be ſeized with ſuch a phrenzy, can only be believed by ſuppoſing, that the nature of climate, or an epidemical diſtemper, had produced a total annihilation of their rational powers.

Though your Correſpondent has thought proper only to conſider the queſtion in the view of humanity and policy, I cannot help thinking juſtice is at leaſt tantamount to either. If we were to take up the queſtion as this Gentleman has done, it would perhaps be much eaſier to prove the propriety of interdicting many inſtitutions among ourſelves, than to engage in a buſineſs of which we muſt be incompetent judges, and in the deſtruction of which we can only be diſtantly intereſted. Who that has ever been witneſs of the dreadful effects of metallurgic employments, but muſt wiſh an entire ſtop were put to ſuch deſtructive occupations? To what purpoſe, we may aſk, are our houſes painted, our apartments ſupplied conveniently with water, and the roofs ſecured from that deſtructive element, if the unhappy wretches, who are employed in procuring us theſe bleſſings, are to fall victims to the deliterious effects of lead? But let me follow your Correſpondent in the mode of reaſoning he has thought proper to adopt. And, firſt, as to the reſpective claims of policy and humanity. When, ſays he, humanity means the rights of men, and policy the intereſt of a few, the former unqueſtionably ought to prevail. Who will doubt ſo fair a concluſion? But if we ſay, on the contrary, that when the intereſt and revenue of a large commercial nation are put in competition with the ſuppoſed comparative happineſs of individuals groaning under the miſeries of a deſpotic government, and ſtrangers to the ſound of liberty, it may at leaſt arreſt our judgment, if not alter our deciſion. However, a due regard to the rights of man ſhould make us cautious of reconciling the violent enſlaving of any individual, and ſtill more the dragging him from a country and from connections, his attachment to which we cannot form a juſt idea of. I would therefore willingly diſmiſs the ſubject of humanity, not from a conviction of its incompatibility with the ſlave trade, but becauſe I conceive myſelf an incompetent judge how far the condition of an African may be meliorated by his tranſplantation, and becauſe, ſhould we decide in the negative, there would at once be an end to all further diſcuſſion. But your Correſpondent conceives the climate is not ſuch as to prevent white men from labouring. Let me aſk this Gentleman, who would ſo much improve the judgment of mankind, and ſo readily diveſt them of deep-rooted prejudices, if he can ſhew me an inſtance of a country ſituated between the tropics, on the weſtern ſide of the globe, in which it is the cuſtom for men to labour at agriculture? The original inhabitants of theſe iſlands lived on the ſpontaneous productions of the earth, looked for no pleaſures but the refreſhing coolneſs of a ſhady brook, and were ſtrangers to all thoſe fatigues which man, however ſavage, muſt in colder climates undergo for his ſupport. But it is ſaid, that, would men make the attempt, they might work in this country, even with advantage to their health; and the poor ignorant creatures are very affectionately taught the great pleaſures that would accrue from labouring in a country where it has hitherto been deemed unſafe to expoſe themſelves to the meridian rays of the ſun. We are told a white made the experiment on himſelf, not indeed in the tropical iſlands, but in Georgia, or one of the Floridas, or ſomewhere on the

the continent. Here he worked as hard as an African, and fared as hard; the conſequence was, that, though naturally feeble, his health and vigour improved. I would wiſh for no better apology than the inferences the advocate for the abolition would draw from this incident. Who would not envy the ſituation of a negro, when his manner of life is not only the moſt agreeable, but the moſt conducive to health? But I will not affront your readers ſo far as to ſuppoſe any of them ſo ignorant of the difference of climate in Georgia and the Weſt Indies, nor is it worth while to dilate on the difference between labouring for a *month's experiment*, and the diurnal returns through every period of the year, without remiſſion.

We are next told of the hard fate of our countrymen engaged in labours of the field, and in manufactures.—To the former it is ſaid, men habituate themſelves, by degrees, ſo as to go through their work with ſucceſs, and return to it with vigour. That the huſbandman labours is moſt certain, and that his caſe is much harder in many reſpects than that of the Weſt-India ſlave. When the latter dies, his maſter loſes a ſlave; when the former falls, a victim to the avarice of his employers and the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the ſtate loſes, indeed, a valuable member, and the pariſh becomes charged with a freſh burthen; but no individual being immediately intereſted, he meets with no other protection, during life, than the precarious aſſiſtance of long withheld charity. Thus the compariſon, if any can be drawn, is, that the huſbandman either ſhortens his life by labour, or dies through neceſſity; while the ſlave, being the property of another, has the chance of being preſerved, from the ſureſt of all motives—the intereſt of his owner.

In the ingenious compariſon that follows, an attempt is made to prove, that ſugar would come cheaper to market, without the exiſtence of ſlavery, than at preſent. For my own part, I know not how it could come at all. That conſtant labour, in theſe climates, is inconſiſtent with European conſtitutions, no arguments are neceſſary to prove. Is ever a regiment ſtationed in one of the iſlands, and confined to ſevere duty, but that the mortality is in the proportion of ſeven in ten, and this under the ſevereſt diſcipline of temperance and regularity? But it is urged, that the negroes, when emancipated, might labour as ſervants. God forbid ſuch a period ſhould ever arrive, when an African, like an Engliſh peaſant, muſt ſtarve, or ſubmit to work for thoſe who have no intereſt in his preſervation. But happily there is no danger of this. Do we ever find the free negroes ſubmit to any other labour than that of cultivating a little garden, as the weather or their fancy directs them? Do the free negroes of Jamaica ever confine themſelves to a ſpot, or turn their thoughts to any other employments than what are barely ſufficient for their immediate ſupport? But let us ſuppoſe, for argument's ſake, that, contrary to natural diſpoſition, and the effects of climate, the negroes ſhould be diſpoſed to labour; by what calculation can we be made to believe, that 1 s. *per diem* would be wages for his ſupport? Do we not know, that the commoneſt artizans of that country claim no leſs than 15 s. per day? and can we ſuppoſe, while the diſproportion of the price of labour is ſuch, that an individual would be left to cultivate the land? But if the maſter, who buys his goods to ſuch advantage, pays 8 d. a day for the ſupport of a ſlave, how can the negro, without his protection, without an allotment of land and a hut, be expected to ſupply himſelf with every neceſſary at the rate of 1 s. *per diem*? I ſhall therefore diſmiſs the remainder of the calculations on this ſubject, and juſt paſs a few animadverſions on the concluſion of this paragraph: "In the hour of ſickneſs," it is obſerved, "the negro preſſes hard "on the planter; a negro is property; "the loſs of a negro is the loſs of "property. A freeman is no pro-

" perty. The death or abſence of a " freeman is no loſs." Benevolent obſervations! Could Inkle himſelf calculate with more mercantile *ſang froid?* On theſe terms, the employment of freemen is certainly preferable to that of ſlaves. If you can receive their labour as long as they can ſupport the burning rays of a tropical ſun, and after that leave them to die in the ſhade, you will certainly make your fortune, unleſs the race ſhould be exterminated before your ambition is ſatiated.

As all the other calculations proceed on the ill-founded concluſion of the one ſtated above, I ſhall diſmiſs them all without further animadverſion. Nor need I take notice of thoſe relative to the diſadvantages under which the ſlave trade labours to the merchant, captains and owners: as I am not myſelf engaged therein, it would ill become me to give an opinion on the ſubject. But it is not cuſtomary to ſee men tenacious of a loſing trade, much leſs to ſee them grow rich under it. That the revenue is conſiderably encreaſed by it is certain. Nor is it ſo clear that the mortality among the ſailors engaged in that traffic is ſo great as your Correſpondent repreſents it. It requires no argument to prove, that, with a ſcanty crew, it would be impoſſible for a ſhip laden with ſlaves to complete her voyage; and it is equally certain, that inſtances of ſerious mutinies are very uncommon, if they have ever happened. If this be the caſe, it muſt be admitted, that the African trade, in common with all other foreign ones, increaſes our ſtock of ſeamen, and our capacity to face an enemy with diſpatch and energy. Add to this, that it takes off many of our manufactures, and none of our real ſpecie.

But I fear I ſhall ſeem to defend the ſlave trade as juſt becauſe it is politic. This is far from my intention, which is only to anſwer the objections raiſed againſt its policy. What is unjuſt ought never to be defended on any grounds: but while we wantonly interfere, perhaps from the beſt of motives, with the commercial regulations of men diſtant from us, and pretend to ſhew them how much they miſtake their real intereſt, and how neceſſary it is to interrupt a commerce the nature of which we cannot but be ignorant of, let us conſider the degree of juſtice that is due to them. They have left their connections in this favoured iſland, expoſed their health and capitals to the uncertainty of a dangerous climate, and a precarious enterprize. By their ſucceſs, they have enriched the mother country, and furniſhed her with ſome of the moſt valuable luxuries that nature can ſupply, and which her own ſoil and climate for ever precluded her acquiring at home: they have enabled her to raiſe vaſt revenues, without oppreſſing her children, and by a concurrence of circumſtances, have, in times of foreign diſſenſions, removed the ſeat of war from her own peaceful habitation to the ocean, or their own ill-protected iſlands. Is the return we ſhould make that of deſtroying the only means by which they can procure us theſe bleſſings, and involving them in one univerſal and inevitable ruin?

Do not ſuppoſe, Sir, I would ever defend a bad cauſe, were the object greater than what I have deſcribed. It is not reaſonable that Africa ſhould ſacrifice her ſable children to purchaſe us luxuries, or to ſecure us tranquility. But while we undertake the protection of a country that voluntarily ſells its inhabitants, let us remember the claims our tranſ-atlantic brethren have on us. If they are to be deprived of the only means of cultivating their lands, let us firſt think of finding them a ſubſtitute, or of indemnifying them for their loſſes. But before we even attempt this, let us be better informed of the real ſituation of the negro ſlaves, and of the Africans in their own country: let us endeavour to meliorate their condition before we attempt to deſtroy a cuſtom that has antiquity, and, for any thing we know, juſtice to plead for it. At

leaſt,

leaſt, let us lay aſide declamation, and attend to cool argument, and, above all, to facts.

If, as I verily believe to be the caſe, many new regulations are neceſſary, and ſome individuals have abuſed the too great power which this difference of rank has given them, let us rather attend to removing abuſes, than haſtily attempt the ſubverſion of eſtabliſhed laws. If, after all, it ſhould be found impoſſible to reconcile the ſlave trade with juſtice and humanity, let it be aboliſhed, though the conſequence to us be the loſs of the Weſt Indies, and of every other foreign poſſeſſion.

VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE IN ENGLAND, WITH OCCASIONAL REVIEWS OF SOME OF THE MOST CELEBRATED WORKS.

No. I.

BRIGHT as the ſun of ſcience now ſhines on the Engliſh hemiſphere, there have been times when this country was plunged into a ſtate of ignorance and barbariſm. When Cæſar firſt diſplayed the Roman eagles on the coaſt of Britain, the generality of the inhabitants were brave and unlettered. Yet the Britons had reached to that ſtate of cultivation in which a numerous body of men were maintained, at the public expence, for the ſtudy of learning and religion. Theſe were the Druids, the divines and philoſophers of Britain, to whom the people paid the higheſt honours. Of theſe (ſays Strabo) there were three claſſes, the bards, the vates, and the druids: the firſt were the poets and muſicians, the ſecond the prieſts and phyſiologiſts, and the third, who were the chief, and properly called the Druids, added the ſtudy of philoſophy to the other ſciences.

The Druids had certainly made conſiderable progreſs in ſeveral ſciences before they were extirpated; but, from the profound ſecrecy they affected in concealing their opinions, and their invariable rule not to commit any of their doctrines to writing, it is impoſſible to diſcover any of the tenets of their philoſophy.

That the Druids did not conceal their knowledge from an ignorance of letters is evident from the law itſelf, for the prohibition is a ſufficient evidence of their acquaintance with them. Cæſar expreſsly ſays, they made uſe of letters and of the Greek alphabet, which Strabo tells us they acquired from the Greek colony of Marſeilles. However far their knowledge of letters extended, we have now no remains of them.

For near a century after Cæſar's invaſion, the undaunted courage of our brave anceſtors found the Romans full employment for their arms, and the celebrated Julius Agricola was the firſt Roman governor who paid any attention to the concerns of letters. Learned himſelf, he was at great pains to introduce the arts and ſciences into his government. He induced the youth of Britain to apply to the ſtudy of the Latin tongue: they had loſt their old inſtructors by the expulſion of the Druids, readily accepted the teachers they ſet over them, and made a great proficiency therein. In the Greek tongue they alſo made conſiderable progreſs: to this the introduction of the Chriſtian religion greatly contributed, as the New Teſtament was written in that language.

We may naturally ſuppoſe that many learned men, and ſome good writers, flouriſhed in Britain during the Roman government; but the dreadful deſtruction made by the invaſions of the Scots, Picts, and Saxons, have deſtroyed their works, and almoſt obliterated every memorial of them.

From the poet Auſonius we learn that Sylvius Bonus, or Coil the Good,

was a Briton and an author; but his works are loſt, and entirely unknown.

Pelagius was undoubtedly a native of Britain, but whether of England, Scotland, or Wales, is uncertain: however, he ſettled in Wales, in the monaſtery of Bangor, where he became a monk, and afterwards abbot. Pelagius ſtarted ſome opinions which the rigid adherents of the church of Rome deemed hereſy, and ſeverely perſecuted him for them. His works were, 1. *Expoſitionum in Epiſt. Paulinas*; 2. *Epiſtola ad Demetriadem de virginitate*; 3. *Explanationes ſymboli ad Damaſum*; 4. *Epiſtolæ at Viduam duæ*; 5. *De libero arbitrio*. Theſe, with other fragments, are ſcattered among the works of St. Jerome, and are alſo collected by Garnorius. Pelagius aſſerted the juſtice of the Deity, and not daring to imagine that a juſt God would puniſh one being for the crime of another, he conſequently denied the doctrine of original ſin. To give our readers an idea of the language the *ſaints* and *meek miniſters* of the goſpel then employed in their controverſies, we ſhall tranſcribe what St. Jerome ſays of Celeſtius, (a Scotſman) the diſciple and friend of Pelagius: he calls him "an ignorant and ſtupid fool, having his belly diſtended with Scots pottage; a great, corpulent, barking dog, who was fitter to kick with his heels than bite with his teeth; a Cerberus, who, with his maſter Pluto, (Pelagius) deſerved to be knocked on the head, that they may be ſent to eternal ſilence."

Pelagius was the only author who flouriſhed in the fifth century. At this time, from the decay of the Roman power, and the havock made by the invaders, we may date alſo the decay of ſuch learning as then flouriſhed in England. A few only of the Chriſtian clergy preſerved ſome remains of learning among the Britons. Theſe retired, from the rage of their invaders, into Wales.

During the ſixth century, war raged in England, with little intermiſſion, and the inhabitants were either extirpated, enſlaved, or expelled their country. During this period, literature could not be cultivated. Gildas is the only Britiſh author whoſe works are publiſhed. In the age in which he flouriſhed, he was much admired, and obtained the appellation of Gildas *the Wiſe*. His only work now extant, *De excidio Britanniæ*, by no means entitles him to that honour: this work appears to have been written in a conſternation, more like the declamation of an orator than an hiſtorical account.

The converſion of the Anglo-Saxons to Chriſtianity, in the courſe of the ſeventh century, certainly contributed to enlighten their minds and promote the intereſt of learning: yet we find this century produced as few writers as the laſt. Aldhelm, Biſhop of Shireburn, was the chief; he acquired an uncommon ſtock of learning, for thoſe times, and became famous for it not only in England but in foreign parts, ſo much that Ancivil, ſon of the King of Scotland, who wrote many pieces, ſent them to Aldhelm, intreating him to give them their laſt poliſh, by rubbing off their Scottiſh ruſt. He was the firſt Engliſhman who wrote in Latin, which he did both in proſe and verſe, and compoſed a book for the inſtruction of his countrymen, in the profody of that language. Venerable Bede calls him a man of univerſal erudition, and King Alfred ſays he was the beſt of the Saxon poets, and that a ſong univerſally ſung in his time, which was near two hundred years after Aldhelm's death, was of his compoſition: ſeveral of his pieces are ſtill extant.

The Engliſh of this century were under great obligations to Theodore, Archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was a native of Tarſus, in Sileſia, and one of the moſt learned men of his age. He brought with him from Rome a valuable collection of books, and ſeveral profeſſors of ſciences, to aſſiſt him in the education of the Engliſh youth. The ſcheme, Bede tells, was crowned with the greateſt ſucceſs. Several ſeminaries were eſtabliſh-

tabliſhed. In this century alſo Nennius, Abbot of Bangor, a Welſh author, flouriſhed, and wrote a hiſtory of the Britons, which has been often printed.

In the next, the 8th century, the nations on the continent were in danger of loſing the ſmall remains of learning they had left. This was of eſſential ſervice to Britain: here they applied to the ſtudy of the ſciences, and the ſchools eſtabliſhed by Theodore, and by King Segbert, in Eaſt Anglia, produced ſome good ſcholars, and a few writers.

Tobias, biſhop of Rocheſter, flouriſhed in this century, a man who had made great proficiency in all parts of learning. He wrote ſeveral works, but they all periſhed by the ſubſequent depredations of the Danes.

But the great luminary of England and of the Chriſtian world in this century, was the *venerable* Bede, a native of Northumberland, and educated in the monaſtery of St. Peter. By help of an excellent genius, and good tutors, he made uncommon progreſs in knowledge; and the fame of his learning ſpread over Europe. Aſſiduous as he was in acquiring knowledge, he was no leſs ſo in communicating it. This appears from the prodigious number of works he compoſed. His works have been publiſhed complete, in different cities of Europe, but never in Britain. The moſt complete edition is that of Cologne, in eight vol. in folio. They conſiſt of 139 articles in philoſophy, grammar, biography, theology, and an eccleſiaſtical hiſtory of England. This work is moſt read, and moſt referred too. It begins at Julius Cæſar's invaſion, and comes down to the year of our Lord 731; and was written at the requeſt of Ceolulph, king of Northumberland, to whom it is dedicated.

Alcuinus flouriſhed in the latter part of this century, famous for his genius and erudition; he was born in the north of England, and educated at York. Being ſent by Offa, King of Mercia, to Charlemagne, he was prevailed on to ſettle at the court of that monarch, and then wrote ſeveral works againſt the heretical book of Felix, biſhop of Urgel, and in defence of the orthodox faith, ſo much to the conviction of Felix and his followers, that they abandoned their errors. Alcuinus was appointed to preſide over an academy eſtabliſhed in the imperial palace; and Monſ. Creveir confeſſes that France is indebted to Alcuinus for all the polite learning ſhe boaſted of in that and the following ages.

Alcuinus compoſed many treatiſes, and on a variety of ſubjects, in a ſtyle ſuperior to the generality of the writers of that age.

Beſides theſe, Boniface, firſt archbiſhop of Mentz, was a native either of North or South Britain, and wrote many letters, which have been collected and publiſhed by Serarius, and contain many curious things. Willibald, his nephew, was a man of learning, and wrote his uncle's life. Oddius, a monk of this century, wrote the life of Wilfred, archbiſhop of Canterbury, which has been publiſhed by Dr. Gale.

In the ninth century literature, which had been kept alive by the appearance of ſuch bright luminaries as Bede, Aldhelm, &c. ſeems to have been nearly extinguiſhed. Many of the ſeats of learning had been deſtroyed by the Danes. So miſerable was the ſtate of learning, that Alfred the Great, in a letter to Wulffig, thus expreſſes himſelf: "At my acceſſion to the throne, (A. D. 871) all knowledge was extinguiſhed in the Engliſh nation; inſomuch, that there were very few to the ſouth of the Humber who underſtood the common prayers of the church, or were capable of tranſlating a ſingle ſentence of Latin into Engliſh: but to the ſouth of the Thames I cannot recollect one who could do this." However, Joannis Scotus Erigena, ſo called from the name of his country, travelled into foreign parts, acquired great knowledge, ſettled in France, and compoſed ſeveral works, the principal of which

which was his book concerning the nature of things, which, after laying long in manuſcript, was at length publiſhed by Dr. Gale. We cannot avoid mentioning ſo great a man, although not ſtrictly within the compaſs of our work.

A DISCOURSE UPON CLOTHES, DRESS, AND FASHIONS; AS DRAWN FROM SEALS, MONIES, MEDALS, PAINTINGS, GLASS-WINDOWS, TOMBS, CHRONICLES, AND OTHER AUTHENTIC VOUCHERS.

BY AN EMINENT ANTIQUARIAN.

[*Continued from Page* 256.]

'QUEEN Anne, K. Richard 'II.'s conſort, (who firſt taught 'Engliſh women to ride on ſide-ſad-'dles, when as heretofore they rid a-'ſtride) brought in high head attire, 'piked with horns, and long trained 'gowns, for women.'

'Theſe high heads had ſometimes 'one point, ſometimes two, ſhaped 'like ſugar-loaves; to which they 'had a ſort of ſtreamers faſtened, 'which wantoned and hung down 'behind, and, turning up again, were 'tied to their girdles.'

K. Henry IV. (as appears by his broad ſeal in Sandford) wore long hair, whiſkers, and a double-pointed beard.

Blanch, Ducheſs of Lancaſter, K. Henry IVth's mother, (as appears by the figure of her monument, formerly extant in St. Paul's, which ſee in Sandford) wore a quilted ſilk cap, with a three-pointed border of broad lace, or needle-work; a round, ſtiff body coat, reaching to her middle, with ſtrait, long ſleeves, reaching to her wriſts.

K. Henry IV. himſelf is generally pictured in an hood: ſo that it ſeems he quitted the new faſhion (caps) and returned to the old faſhion (hoods.)

In the ſaid King Henry the IVth's time, the long-pocketed ſleeve was much in faſhion. This is what the heralds call the *manche*. 'Of theſe 'Hocclive, a maſter of that age, 'ſung,

'Now hath this land leſs need of brooms
'To ſweep the filth out of the ſtreet;
'Sen ſide-ſleeves of pennyleſs grooms
'Will it up lick, be't dry or weet."

K. Henry V. (as appears by his broad ſeal in Sandford) wore long hair, whiſkers, and a double piked beard. But this deſcription of his perſon, as taken from that ſeal, differs ſo much from the portrait of him in an original picture mentioned by the ſaid Mr. Sandford, (where he was drawn with cropt hair, no whiſkers, or beard; from which picture is effigies are ſupplied on his monument, by the ſame ingenious herald) that one or other of them, I think, muſt be falſe. And freely, to ſpeak my opinion, the picture on his ſuppoſed ſeal is fitter for his father than Henry V.

The ſaid K. Henry the Vth's ſhoes, in his effigies on his monument at Weſtminſter, (which ſee in Sandford) are remarkably broad. Camden, ſpeaking of the long ſleeves ſo generally worn in Henry the IVth's time, ſaith, 'Not many years after, [ſuppoſe in Henry the Vth's time] it was proclaimed, that no man ſhould have his ſhoes broader at the toes than ſix inches. And women bummed themſelves with foxes tails under their garments, as they do now with French farthingals, and men with abſurd ſhort garments.

[*To be continued.*]

ACCOUNT

Account of a Journey up MOUNT ROSE.

BY M. DE SAUSSURE.

[*Concluded.*]

Continuation of the Journey round Mount Rose. Passage over the Glacier of Mount Cervin.

In deſcending Red Horn, we returned to ſleep at the Chalets of Betta: it rained that day, and the next morning, ſo that we ſet off late, on account of the rain, and we began to aſcend for about an hour to the top of a gorge, named Fourche de Betta. This gorge is elevated 1351 toiſes. From thence we deſcended, in three hours and a half, to the village of St. James of the vale of Ayas, a village elevated 837 toiſes. The vale of Ayas, lower down, bears the name of the valley of Challand: the Evanſon, which waters it, falls into the Doire, near Virrex.

They had given us hopes that from St. James we might croſs the glaciers of Mount Cervin in a day, and go to ſleep at Zermatt in the Vallais; with this view, we ſet off before day, and aſcended, in four hours and a half, to the lower ſide of the glacier, in a deſart place called Plan-tendre, elevated 1550 toiſes: but we found the glacier covered with a thick fog. We ſtopped there, to make ſome experiments, hoping, in the interval, that the fog would diſperſe; during which time our guide was ſeeking whether he could diſcover any beaten path upon the ſnow which covered the glacier, or any traces of travellers, which would have ſerved to direct our way during the fog, which did not ſeem inclined to diſperſe: but not having found any, he adviſed us to deſcend to Breuil, from whence we might, with greater eaſe, attempt a paſſage another time. Breuil is a ſummer hamlet, dependant on the village of Val Tornanche, which is two leagues lower than the valley of that name. This valley is alſo called Mount Cervin; it is eight leagues long, and ends at the little village of Chatillon. We were three hours and a quarter deſcending to Breuil, which is elevated 1030 toiſes.

We were detained there the remainder of the day and the next morning, by the rain; but on Friday, Auguſt 14, the weather appeared better, and we ſet off early in the morning to paſs the glacier, the paſſage of which is much ſafer from Breuil than from St. James of Ayas. This paſſage is called indifferently Val Tornanche, or Mount Cervin; it is equally renowned and dreaded, both on account of its great elevation, and of the prodigious glacier. We paſſed it, however, very well.

When we left Breuil, our courſe lay towards the north, and afterwards eaſt-north-eaſt. We aſcended, in three hours, from Breuil to the entrance of the glacier, by means of ſome very rapid ſlopes, but without any danger even to our mules. We found the glacier entirely covered with ſnow. We did not ſee the ice in any place, nor any of the crevices; there were ſome, however, and we knew them by long troughs appearing in the ſnow.

The ſlope of the glacier is very gentle; our mules marched on it with ſo much confidence that our guides adviſed us to mount them: but as the ſlope became ſofter, the loaded mules began to ſink, firſt one leg then another, then all at a time, and even up to the girths. We endeavoured to ſupport them, but without effect: our guides were obliged to take their lading on their ſhoulders, and carry it to the height of the glacier, which happily was not far diſtant. The

mules, eaſed of their burthen, did not ſink in any more; but had, however, great difficulty in getting up: they were out of breath, and obliged to ſtop every few paces to recover it. The declivity was by no means great, and the journey they had made of three or four hours could not have fatigued them, eſpecially as they had reſted on the day before: but it muſt have been the rarity of the air which had affected them; they experienced all we had ſuffered when climbing up Mount Blanc. Coutet and Cachat, two perſons who accompanied us, were ſtruck with the reſemblance, and were the firſt to remark it: the reſpiration of theſe poor animals became extremely painful; they drew their breath with ſo much anguiſh, and ſent forth ſuch plaintive moans, as I never heard them do before, even in their greateſt fatigues. It is true that I had never before travelled with mules to ſo great an elevation, and, except in the Cordelleras, I do not think there is on the face of the globe any other paſſage ſo elevated that is acceſſible to mules. The barometer, by an obſervation taken a little below the moſt elevated point of this paſſage, was only 18 inches, 10 lines and a half, which gives an elevation of 1736 toiſes above the level of the ſea.

On the ſummit of this paſſage we are preſented with another curioſity; that is, a fort, or a redoubt, formed by a wall of ſtones ſolidly built, with loop holes, for large muſkets.

This redoubt is called Saint Theodule: we had before ſeen one at the entrance of the glacier. Theſe two redoubts were conſtructed two or three centuries ago by the inhabitants of the vale of Aoſte, to defend them from an invaſion of the inhabitants of the Vallais. Theſe fortifications are certainly the moſt elevated on our planet. But how does it happen that mankind have not erected any thing durable in theſe elevated regions, but monuments of their hatred and deſtructive paſſions? Beſides, this place is very fine of its kind. All the top of the hill, open to the winds, is clear of ſnow during the fine ſeaſon, and the height, towards the eaſt, on which we erected our tents, had a very pretty ſpot around it, ornamented with *Diapenſia Helvetica* and *renoncules glaciales*. If I had known of a ſituation ſo eaſy of acceſs, in compariſon with the *Col-de-Geant*, ſo much nearer to inhabited places, and only ſeventy-ſeven toiſes lower, I ſhould certainly have preferred it for our meteorological obſervations.

From hence we enjoyed a very beautiful view of mountains. To the eaſt we had a view of the interior circle of Mount Roſe, which forms the horizon from the N. E. to the E. S. E. To the ſouth we viewed a magnificent chain of lofty ſummits, interrupted by ſnow and rocks. This chain extends towards Mount Roſe, near the paſſage of the *Weiſs Grat*, of which I have before ſpoken, and which is the paſs from Macugnaga to the *Zer-Matt*. Below us, to the weſtward, are the paſtures of Breuil, formed by an incloſure, nearly circular, of lofty ſummits: but the fineſt view which this ſituation preſented us was the high and lofty ſummits of Mount Cervin, which ariſes to an enormous height, in the ſhape of a triangular obeliſk, compoſed of a light-coloured rock, and which ſeems to have been cut by a chiſſel. I propoſe to return there another year, to obſerve this magnificent rock nearer, and to meaſure it; but this is not to be done by carrying a barometer, for the ſteep declivity does not afford the poſſibility of an acceſs, nor allow even of the ſnow laying upon it.

The valley of ice, covered with ſnow, which we had to deſcend in going from Saint Theodule to Zer-Matt, ſeen from this height, appeared of an immenſe extent; it ſeemed of the form of a T, the ſuperior traverſe of which ſeparates the calcareous chains of Mount Roſe and Mount Cervin, which preſent their convexities.

Here alſo we did not ſee either granites,

nites in maſs, nor vertical beds. The height of Saint Theodule and the rocks I viſited to the northward, are compoſed of beds a little inclined, alternately, of ſteatites, calcareous ſtones, and quartz. As to Mount Cervin, I did not obſerve it very narrowly; yet, in aſcending from Breuil to Saint Theodule, I made a circuit of about a league, to the left, or to the north, to obſerve ſome part of this mountain on the glacier which deſcends from it. I there found only veined granites and rocks of quartz and mica, but no granites in maſs. The variety of colours we obſerved in the obeliſk of Mount Cervin is, however, a proof that it is formed of other ſorts of ſtone. The beds are not diſtinct in the body of the obeliſk, but all the mountains of the chain to which it belongs, and which runs nearly from north to ſouth, are compoſed of very diſtinct beds.

It took us about an hour to aſcend the ſouthern ſlope of the glacier, and it required full two hours to deſcend on the northern. The mules ſunk into the ſnow, even to their knees, but, however, got on very well: they made ſuch efforts to get forward as fully ſhewed their anxiety to get out of thoſe cold regions, and it was with difficulty we could walk faſt enough to keep up with them. It is true that the ſurface of the ſnow is harder than the bottom; ſometimes it bore us, ſometimes we fell in up to the knees: theſe kind of half falls, which we were continually meeting with, were equally fatiguing and laughable. We at firſt travelled N.E. then N. N. E. which is the proper courſe for Zer Matt, at the top of the valley of Viège, where we deſigned to ſleep. The ſight of this village, ſurrounded with little woods and fine meadows, afforded a lively pleaſure, when we firſt diſcovered it from the middle of the glacier: it is a grateful proſpect, and relieves the mind much after being fatigued with the ſight of nothing but ſnow and barren rocks.

We were three hours and a half between the lower part of the glacier and Zer Matt: it is true, we loſt ſome time in ſearching for and collecting ſome cryſtalized ſchorl, of different ſorts, which we met with on the road. The chief ſtone in theſe mountains is a hard, feruginous ſteatite, green within, but red without: it is laid in beds nearly horizontal.

We were in the greateſt difficulty to find a houſe to lodge in: the inn-keepers were either abſent or in an ill humour. The curate, who ſometimes took in travellers, anſwered, he would not ſell us any thing. At laſt, our brave guide, J. Baptiſte Erin, with whom we lodged at Breuil, and whom I recommend to thoſe who ſhall go this journey, obliged an inn-keeper to receive us.

The ſummit of Mount Cervin, although above three or four leagues diſtant from this village, appeared to riſe majeſtically above it. It lays 53 degrees S. W. of the village.

On the next day, the 15th of Auguſt, in four hours and a half, we arrived to dinner at St. Nicholas, a large village in the valley of Viège, elevated 566 toiſes, and from thence went to Viège, or Vieſh-Bach, the chief place of the valley of that name, the elevation of which is 334 toiſes. The valley of Saſs, Saſſer-Thal, in German, and Val Soſa, in Italian, the ſuperior extremity of which, as I have before obſerved, is connected with Mount Roſe, joins to the valley of Viège, oppoſite the village of Stalder, which we traverſed.

From Viège we returned to Geneva, the 20th of Auguſt. Thus the duration of our journey was, in all, 37 days.

Recapitulation of the remarkable Properties of Mount Roſe.

I ſhall conclude this account by recapitulating the peculiarities which diſtinguiſh Mount Roſe from all the mountains with which I am acquainted.

1. Its height, which, except the Cordilleras, is not exceeded but by Mount Blanc.
2. The multiplicity and connection of its ſummits.
3. The diſpoſition of theſe ſummits in a circle, with a ſpace within.
4. The number of valleys and chains of high mountains, which are connected with the exterior circumference of the circle. Theſe valleys are ſeven in number, and ſeem to indicate that there are an equal number of high chains which connect with the ſame center. In the order we traverſed them, they are the Val Anzaſca, Val Seſia Piccola, Val Seſia Grande, Val de Lys, Val d'Ayas, and the valley of the glacier of Mount Cervin, and laſtly that of Saſs.
5. The ſituation of the ſtrata, which in Mount Roſe, and the adjacent mountains, are nearly horizontal.
6. The gentle aſcents of the exterior declivities, and the great height we can reach on horſeback; this laſt peculiarity may be conſidered as a conſequence of the former.
7. The nature of the rocks, in which maſſes of granites are only found accidentally.
8. The number of gold mines, which are, perhaps, to be found on every ſide of the circle in the mountains which are connected with it.
9. A kind of German guard, which occupies the whole exterior of the circle; I mean thoſe German villages ſituated round the foot of Mount Roſe, even in thoſe valleys in which they ſpeak French or Italian. Theſe villages are, Goule, Macugnaga, Allagne, and Groſſeney; the three firſt are in the Italian valleys, and the fourth in the valley of Aoſte, where they ſpeak French. The origin of theſe Germans is abſolutely unknown, but the moſt probable opinion is, that they were inhabitants of the higher Vallais, who, in traverſing the Alps, have obſerved that the higher parts of theſe valleys were inhabited, and have eſtabliſhed themſelves at the time when the inhabitants of Italy, accuſtomed to a milder climate, dare not conduct their flocks, nor fix their reſidence, in paſtures ſurrounded with ſnow and ice.
10. Laſtly, I ſhall add a few words on the manners of the inhabitants of theſe villages, which is a peculiarity reſpecting Mount Roſe, not the leaſt worthy the attention of a traveller.

As the productions of a barren ſoil and that confined to theſe elevated villages, are not ſufficient for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants, almoſt all the men go abroad to ſeek a livelihood; they begin by being pedlars, and ſometimes riſe to advantageous eſtabliſhments. The ſituation of theſe villagers compels them to learn, even in their early infancy, either German, which is their native tongue, and Italian, or French, which is ſpoken in the neighbouring villages; and the knowledge of thoſe two or three languages gives them a great advantage in travelling. The women remain moſtly at home, charged with the labours of the harveſt, and as they are much more numerous than theſe ſervices, they employ themſelves in carrying merchandize acroſs thoſe paſſages which are inacceſſible to beaſts of burthen. They carry theſe loads with a ſtrength, diligence, and fidelity, very remarkable. I can give an inſtance of the former. At Macugnaga I had made a caſe for minerals, very heavy. I aſked my landlord to find me a man to carry this caſe to Vanzon, from whence it might be diſpatched to Geneva. He anſwered, very ſeriouſly, that there was no man in that country who could carry ſuch a burthen, but, if I pleaſed, he could find me a woman. He found one, who readily undertook it, and it is really fact that two of theſe women will carry as much as a mule. Theſe laborious employments by no means diminiſh their natural gaiety. When we were aſcending the ſteep declivity of Elqua, we were overtaken by ſix of

of theſe women, who reſided on the other ſide of the mountain; they had croſſed it before day to Banio, and returned to ſleep in the Val Seſia. Accuſtomed to croſs theſe mountains loaded with enormous burthens, they make this paſſage twice in a day empty handed. They ran, purſued each other, and climbed with great ſpirit up the heights which bounded our way. They ran before us two or three hundred paces, amuſed themſelves in gathering flowers, or in ſinging under the ſhelter of a rock, and then ſet off again the moment we came near them.

Sobriety, the uſual companion to the love of work, is a remarkable quality in the inhabitants of theſe valleys. The rye bread I have ſpoken of, and which they do not eat until ſix months after it is baked, they moiſten in a little thin milk, or buttermilk, and this kind of ſoup is their principal nouriſhment: cheeſe, and a little old beef, or ſalted goat's fleſh, they keep for feſtivals. Freſh meat they never eat, it is too expenſive a food for them. The richer ſort live with the ſame economy. Our hoſt at Macugnaga, who was by no means poor, was a proof of this. Thoſe who travel into foreign parts return home at leaſt once in two years, to paſs ſome months in their native village; and although while abroad they are accuſtomed to a better diet, they return, without difficulty, to the cuſtoms of their country, and quit them with regret. I was a witneſs of the departures of ſome of them, and was much affected by them.

Their greateſt defect is a want of hoſpitality; they not only are unwilling to receive ſtrangers, but when they meet them on the road, they avoid them as objects of their averſion. However, thoſe of Macugnaga, where we reſided ten or twelve days, became accuſtomed and friendly to us.

Of certain NATURAL APPEARANCES of the Ground on the Hill of ARTHUR's SEAT.

BY JAMES HUTTON, M.D. F.R.S. EDIN. AND MEMBER OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF AGRICULTURE AT PARIS.

IN the ſummer of 1776 Profeſſor Ferguſon obſerved a particular appearance on the hill of Arthur's ſeat, near the ſummit, which drew his attention, and which he could not underſtand. He then carried Dr. Black and me to the place, where we found ſomething which, at a diſtance, reſembled the withered graſs of a foot-path. Upon a near inſpection, it appeared to be a narrow ſtripe of the graſs quite dead and withered: the breadth of this ſtripe was about nine, or, in ſome places, twelve inches; the ſides of this track were perfectly defined, without any gradation from green to withered graſs, all the plants in the track being killed, without the contiguous part having ſuffered in the leaſt. The length of this track was conſiderable, a hundred yards or two, extending from the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the ſouthernmoſt hill through a hollow, and aſcending obliquely the ſhoulder of the ſummit of Arthur's ſeat, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide.

At firſt, thunder ſuggeſted itſelf as having been the cauſe of this remarkable appearance; but the more we enquired into the particulars of this phenomenon, the greater difficulties occurred, with regard to the proper correſpondence of that conjectured cauſe, as well as for aſſigning any other with the leaſt degree of probability. It is with a view to make this appear that the following hiſtory is made of the particulars which were at that time, and have been ſince obſerved.

Obſervation 1. The appearance now

now deſcribed was not the only one of the kind, for, upon examination, I found ſimilar tracks, though of various extent, in all the different aſpects and ſituations, from the ſouth ſide of the ſummit to the north ſide of the hill, half way down to the plain, but none at the bottom.

Obſ. 2. Theſe appearances, though recent, or of that year's production, had not been the firſt thing of that kind which had appeared on the hill; for, parallel to each of thoſe tracks of withered graſs, there was another perfectly ſimilar, which then appeared to us as if it had been made the year before, and was then black, the graſs having rotted. The diſtance of this old track from the new was, in general, only a few inches, ſometimes exceeding near, but rarely or never contiguous.

Obſ. 3. The tracks now under conſideration have been conſidered as a thing continuous in its length; but this is only in general, or in certain portions, where it is ſo ſometimes for a conſiderable extent. In other places again, it is compoſed of ſeveral portions of various lengths, the graſs being unaffected betwixt thoſe portions which make up the track; ſo that, in ſome places, the track is made up, as it were, of ſpots, and thoſe ſpots, although in general longer, in the direction of the track, are not always ſo, there being in ſome places, generally at the extremity of the track, ſpots whoſe length do not exceed their breadth.

Obſ. 4. The regularity with which thoſe two tracks run, parallel and near to each other, is not more wonderful than is the correſpondency that is in general to be obſerved with regard to the conſtruction of theſe, as conſiſting either of a continuous track or of ſeparate pieces; and to ſo great a degree is carried this reſemblance of the two tracks, that, where it is by ſpots the tracks are made, there the ſimilarity, even of the ſpots, were ſometimes remarked, ſo that it ſeemed as if the one had been a copy of the other.

Obſ. 5. Beſides the brown colour of thoſe new-made tracks, which might be ſeen at a conſiderable diſtance, (two or three hundred feet) there was another ſtripe of a dark green, which might be ſeen at a ſtill greater diſtance.

Upon more cloſe examination, it was found to take its origin in ſome graſs of a very dark green, which, in ſome places, here and there, of the laſt year's track, began to grow in the black ground and among the rotten graſs; but the greateſt part of this deep green was behind the laſt year's track, and was evidently owing to a ſimilar growth of graſſes in places which had been formerly killed or withered, and were now almoſt covered with new plants, which gave a deeper ſhade of green than the reſt of the hill.

This laſt obſervation led to another; for here a queſtion naturally occurred, that ſince this ſucceſſion of things had certainly taken place at leaſt three years, how many ſucceſſive tracks might be detected from the examination of theſe appearances? With this view, I conſidered attentively ſome places where the marks were the moſt diſtinct, and could plainly count five or ſix ſucceſſions; the number cannot be accurately aſcertained, becauſe thoſe which have been made above three or four years are much effaced, although the colour, and ſome other marks, evidently prove that theſe had been ſeveral more.

Obſ. 6. The tracks which have been now deſcribed, are not ſtraight lines, but have all, more or leſs, of a regular circular nature in them; that is to ſay, they are ſegments of circular figures, and only approach to the appearance of right lines, in proportion as the figure of which they are the ſegments is large, or the ſegment ſmall; and in thoſe reſpects there appears to be a variety. There is, however, one appearance which, at firſt ſight, might impoſe upon an obſerver, and deſtroy the generality of this obſervation. It is an inſtance or two that occurs of a continued line in thoſe

thoſe tracks; but, in this caſe, the line appears to be made up of ſeveral ſegments, each of which ought to be conſidered by itſelf; conſequently, here will be acknowledged the operation of the ſame general principle by which, in thoſe appearances, a regular figure is produced, and that this figure is in its nature circular.

Obſ. 7. The production of thoſe tracks being ſucceſſive in its nature, or operating in different places at different periods of time, ſuggeſts another ſubject of enquiry, viz. How far any regularity, or a certain order, may be obſerved alſo with regard to this operation, as well as with regard to that by which the figure is produced? And this, from obſervation, I think, is determined in the affirmative, ſo far as, from all the obſervations I have made, this progreſs ſeems always to have proceeded in the direction of a line, drawn from the centre, biſecting the ſegment; that is to ſay, thoſe portions of concentric circles are never inſcribed, but always circumſcribed; and, for this reaſon, it will appear that thoſe circles, of which ſegments are exhibited to our obſervation, muſt be encreaſing, and not diminiſhing, in their diameter.

Having thus given an account of what was concluded from the ſeaſon of thoſe obſervations, before proceeding to give the continuation of their hiſtory, it may be proper to obſerve that an unſucceſsful attempt was once made to inveſtigate the cauſe, by the inſpection of the turf cut up, and compared with that immediately contiguous to the track; for, on that occaſion, nothing was found that could give any light into the nature of the operation.

In the ſummer of 1776 there was prognoſticated a ſucceſſion of appearances ſimilar to thoſe which, from the obſervations then made, had been concluded as having already come to paſs, and been tranſacted with a certain regularity in a former period of time. The event has fully juſtified the judgment which was formed at that time, reſpecting the order and regularity of the appearances, and has alſo left us in the ſame ſtate of uncertainty, or rather ignorance, with regard to the cauſe.

In the ſpring, about the month of April, the graſs begins gradually to wither and decay. It is perfectly dead in a little time, that is, in a week or two, and then appears white, or withered. Thus, every plant being killed in the new track, thoſe vegetable bodies, expoſed to heat and moiſture, gradually decay, ſo as next year to exhibit a dark black, inſtead of a light, or white track, which it had been the year before; but, during the ſecond year, the dead plants are ſtill obſerved in the turf, which, as it begins to get new plants, loſes gradually the appearance of the old ones, until, at laſt, little more can be obſerved than a broad ſhade, of a much deeper green, which, on the one ſide, is compared with the natural verdure into which it ſometimes ſeems gradually to terminate; whereas, on the other ſide, the deep green colour of the ground formerly tracked, is contracted with the yellow or light colour of the withered graſs.

From the inſpection of the ground, and the hiſtory of what has been obſerved to happen, nothing is more evident than that this regular ſucceſſive operation has been now repeated, at leaſt in ſome parts of the hill, for eight or nine years. Here, therefore, is a piece of natural hiſtory worth recording, and for which a theory is wanted.

The appearances which have been here deſcribed are, ſo far as I know, ſingular, and unconnected with all others reſulting from known cauſes. I know that ſimilar circles have been obſerved by naturaliſts, and by them aſcribed to thunder; as we ſhould certainly have done in this caſe, were it not for the regular annual progreſſion, which, if the effect of thunder, muſt follow rules not yet inveſtigated, either in electricity, vegetation, or the mineral ſyſtem; for,

How comes it that the electrical operation takes place regularly in the ſpring

ſpring only, and that without any appearance of thunder?

2dly. How comes it that the ſtripe of graſs deſtroyed by one operation is always regularly progreſſive in one particular direction, in relation to the firſt electrical operation?

3dly. If this progreſſive appearance ſhall be conſidered as an electrical operation, and every ſucceſſive repetition as directed by the one immediately preceding it, then how was the firſt produced? when was it? and when will be the laſt?

The next conjectural cauſe that ſuggeſts itſelf, as an explanation of thoſe appearances, is the operation of inſects. But there ſeems to be no leſs difficulty in reconciling any known animal œconomy with the appearances under conſideration, as the only cauſe of thoſe appearances, for,

How ſhould thoſe animals have been diſtributed in thoſe ſeparated tribes upon the hill, and diſpoſed in the continuous tracks, ſo as to exhibit lines of long extent, traverſing ground and ſoil of various quality, as well as in tracks of very little extent, but, whether great or ſmall, formed upon the ſame principle, every part having a ſimilar relation to a whole?

Are theſe large tracks to be conſidered as the extenſion of colonies which once had been ſmall? or, are theſe colonies dropped from the atmoſphere upon the different parts of the hill, in the ſhape and extent in which we find thoſe ſtripes of withered graſs?

This laſt hypotheſis is not ſupported by any appearance that I know in this country; and the other is not conſiſtent with the natural appearances to which it muſt belong; for the ſolitary or inſulated ſpots, which often form part of a ſtripe, ſeem to be reproduced, in nearly equal quantity, each ſucceeding year, without any gradual extenſion in the ſtripe, which ſeems to preſerve its former extent, as well as breadth and form.

Great attention would be required in making obſervations with a view to diſcover the cauſe of thoſe appearances; and the difficulty of this taſk is much encreaſed by an ambiguity which occurs on certain occaſions, where the breeding of inſects, in conſequence of the death of plants, may be miſtaken for the death of plants, in conſequence of inſects; but, on the other hand, in the preſent caſe, great advantage, for an enquiry of this ſort, may be derived from the opportunity that there is of examining not only what had been killed the preceding, but alſo that part which is, perhaps, to be killed the enſuing ſeaſon; and where experiment may be made by cutting off the communication betwixt thoſe two parts as deep as the ſoil may admit.

The apparent production, or rather the multiplication, of ſome ſpecies of animals, in conſequence of a certain deſtruction of the vegetable turf, is a thing eaſily to be conceived, like what happens in thoſe ſtripes the ſecond year, when I have ſeen an abundant crop of a certain ſpecies of muſhrooms in the track.

Had animals of a particular ſpecies been found there, in the examination of the ſoil in thoſe tracks, a raſh concluſion might have been formed, in erroneouſly attributing as a cauſe for the appearance, what was truly an effect or conſequence of the thing in queſtion.

The explanation of the phenomena, in the preſent piece of natural hiſtory, either by thunder, or the operation of inſects, without having obſerved the actual connection of thoſe different events, is merely conjectural, as would be equally the refuſing to admit, for explanation, a known cauſe, which, though not actually obſerved as connected with the event in queſtion, had, in other reſpects, the requiſites for producing a ſimilar effect.

But all that is known at preſent of electricity, or the operation of inſects, is far from being ſufficient to be conſidered as the explanation of the appearances in queſtion; for,

Though the growing plants, or the vegetation of a portion of the living

living turf, may be killed either by the means of electricity or inſects, theſe are not the only means by which that effect may be brought about; at the ſame time that this is the only circumſtance, in the natural appearance, explainable by the ſuppoſed cauſe: therefore, as every circumſtance in an appearance muſt be properly related to a cauſe, by which it is to be explained, ſo the many circumſtances here found, without any affinity to, if not inconſiſtent with, the conjectured cauſe, will leave no room for admitting ſuch an explanation, according to the preſent view which has been given of the ſubject.

General Principles of POLITICAL ŒCONOMY.

BY COUNT DE BRÜHL.

No. III.

FOR I hold it for a maxim, that it is yet better for a country to carry on a diſadvantageous commerce than none at all: however paradoxical this aſſertion may appear, I flatter myſelf I ſhall be able to prove the truth of it by the following hypotheſis.

Suppoſe a country, who, with a fourth part of the whole of her proviſions, procures herſelf various artificial productions from foreigners; let this country determine to prohibit the importation of all foreign merchandize, and let the manufacturing country be either deficient in money to pay for the proviſions they uſed to purchaſe of the agricultural country, or, which is more natural, let them procure them by going to other markets more agreeable to their intereſt. In either caſe, it is clear that a fourth part of their proviſions will become uſeleſs, and will continue to be burthenſome to her until ſhe is able to procure domeſtic conſumers by the eſtabliſhment of manufactures, whoſe labour will ſupply thoſe artificial productions they uſed to import: there will be alſo, during this interval, a fourth part of her lands without culture, and a proportional number of her huſbandmen in beggary. Happily abſolute prohibitions are almoſt always avoided, from whence it follows that the practice of ſmuggling acts as a corrective. Thus, if prohibitory laws againſt importations are not always as pernicious in their effects as they are in ſpeculation, it only ariſes from the impoſſibility of executing them.

Before I quit this hypotheſis, it will be proper to obſerve that if this fourth part of the ſuperfluous proviſion of the agriculture country can be retained within herſelf by an augmentation of a fourth part of induſtrious inhabitants, her ſtrength and real happineſs will increaſe in the ſame proportion.

Thus, in whatever ſituation we can imagine, there is not any in which abſolute prohibitions are exempt from cenſure: it has been already proved that they can never accompliſh the intent of their inſtitution, and all that can be granted them is, that a country which has no other commerce but an exchange of proviſions for manufactures, may lay on eaſy duties, with the laudable intention of encouraging the induſtry of its inhabitants, provided local circumſtances, occaſioned by the climate and the quality of her ſoil, do not preſent invincible obſtacles thereto. It is in this light the exorbitant duties which England has laid on a variety of foreign articles, give offence; which favour much more of an exceſs of jealouſy than a profound knowledge of the true principles of commerce. Take the following as a proof of this remark.

In 1766, that ſtate thought proper to prohibit foreign cambricks, by giving a bounty on thoſe of her own manufacture. Since that prohibition, her own workmen have clandeſtinely imported them, and marked them like their own manufactures, to enjoy the benefit of the bounty. It has been nearly the ſame with regard to French ſilks, which, ſince the time of their prohibition in 1765, have been brought into the kingdom in greater quantities than when they were only ſubject to certain duties, and this is what many people call *encouraging national induſtry*.

A wiſe adminiſtration will content itſelf with diminiſhing the rivalſhip which artificial productions of foreigners exerciſe, to the prejudice of their own manufactures; but they will be careful not to remove it. It is an obſervation that I have often had an opportunity to experience the truth of, by remarking the immoderate price paid in England for various articles of a very middling quality, and merely for domeſtic conſumption. This inconvenience can only be occaſioned by entirely deſtroying a ſalutary rivalſhip, from which their own manufacturers enjoy a ſpecies of monopoly which they are but too much inclined to abuſe, to the prejudice of the conſumers.

If it is not the ſame with reſpect to articles for foreign commerce, it is becauſe the rivalſhip they meet with compels the manufacturers to practiſe more moderation and probity.

Of a sole Impost.

The friends to the ſyſtem of a ſole impoſt form two claſſes: the firſt comprehends all the diſciples of Meſſ. Du Queſnay et Du Mirabeau, whoſe doctrine reſts on the following principle, and which appears to them indiſputable; that is, that every impoſt, place it where you will, falls ultimately on the produce of the land. This opinion is not a new one, and is, in a great degree, ſupported by the ſuppoſed authority of the celebrated Locke. Let us ſee what this great philoſopher ſays on this ſubject. After having proved that the decay of commerce inevitably cauſes a reduction of the value of land, he proceeds thus: (Conſideration on lowering the Intereſt, &c. par. 97, vol. II.) "This, "properly attended to, may ſerve to "ſhew us that in a country whoſe "principal capital is in land, taxes, "in whatever way they are laid, "from whatever they are firſt drawn, "fall, the greater portion, upon "land."

If theſe œconomical gentlemen had reſted there, they had advanced nothing but what was ſtrictly true; but they pretend that *all* taxes fall on the produce of the land, whic appears to me an erroneous aſſertion, the examination of which ſhall be the object of the firſt part of this chapter.

The ſecond claſs of advocates for a ſole impoſt are thoſe who maintain that every order of citizens neceſſarily contribute to the public expence, in proportion to their abilities; from whence they infer that a ſole impoſt muſt be preferable to many, from the ſimplicity of its collection. We ſhall remark that this is very different from the former, who pretend that the proprietors of land ſupport ſolely the whole burthen of the expences of a ſtate.

1ſt. I undertake to prove that all impoſts do not fall on the produce of agriculture. To arrive at this proof, this is the courſe I ſhall take. I firſt lay it down for a principle, that the expence of all government, that is to ſay, the general and only cauſe o taxes, under whatever form, and by whatever power they are levied, is the amount of the wants, either real or artificial, of all ſubjects who devote themſelves, or are looked upon as devoted, to the ſervice of the ſtate: I ſhall then aſk permiſſion to revert to my ordinary method, by offering an ex-

example applicable to the object of our enquiries.

Let us ſuppoſe, then, a nation, among whom the circulation of the precious metals made uſe of as money is entirely unknown; for, although in reality every exchange requires a meaſure of compariſon, and nothing can acquire the quality of a univerſal meaſure of value, without being, at the ſame time, an equivalent, we cannot otherways uſe the caſe of a nation, deprived of money, to ſimplify the queſtion we are about reſolving.

We are now to provide for the wants of the ſtate; that is, according to my principle, we have to pay thoſe who ſerve that ſtate what is an equivalent for their duty, for their ſubſiſtence, cloathing, habitations, and pleaſure, and for that we muſt lay a tax. Now the moſt eaſy and natural way to tax ſuch a people, without diſpute, would be for every claſs of citizens to contribute a proportion of the ſurplus of that ſpecies of goods which conſtitutes their riches.

According to this regulation, the proprietors of the land would furniſh, in the productions of the earth, ſuch a quantity of proviſions as they could ſpare; the artiſt and the learned would devote a part of their time to ſome occupations uſeful to the ſtate; the handicraftman and the manufacturer would provide the ſervants of the ſtate with ſuch different works as were not indiſpenſably neceſſary for their own ſupport. In ſuch a diſtribution of public burthens, no part of the inhabitants of a country would be oppreſſed, becauſe the contribution of every perſon would conſiſt only of the diſpoſable part, or ſurplus, of his income.

It ſeems to me there requires no more to convince us that the different claſſes of labouring people conſtitute a capital entirely detached and independent of the land, and that the part of the tax which can be drawn from that capital ought not to be conſidered as an advance which ultimately falls on the revenue of the agricultural claſs, but as a real contribution on the part of thoſe claſſes, and is chargeable on them alone, and which, in any ſituation, cannot be ſupplied by a ſingle tax on the proprietors of the land, without augmenting the public expence as far as reſpects them.

To make this important truth the more apparent, let us ſee what would become of our nation if, inſtead of the reſources ſhe draws from the induſtry of her people, ſhe ſhould reſolve to ſubſtitute a ſole impoſt on proviſions. Let us ſuppoſe that the part of the public revenue which is ſupplied by the induſtrious claſſes one third, it is indifferent whether the claſs denominated by political authors the ſterile claſs, bears, in every ſtate, an equal proportion to the different orders of citizens; for the part they ſupply towards the tax muſt neceſſarily vary according to the proportion between that claſs and the total amount of the inhabitants of a country, the degree of induſtry of its people, and the diſtribution of the public burthen. Now, therefore, on a ſuppoſition that this claſs ſupports one third of the whole duty, when the ſyſtem of the ſole impoſt on land ſhall be adopted, the contribution of the agricultural claſs muſt increaſe in proportion.

The natural conſequence of this operation in finance will be that the proprietors of the ſoil will be diſheartened. This diſcouragement will inſenſibly diminiſh the produce of the harveſt; this diminution will depopulate the country, and this depopulation will bring on a decreaſe of the revenue of the ſtate: all the arts, all the manufactures, will fall to decay, becauſe neither the expenditure of government, nor of individuals, can any longer afford employment to an equal number of workmen, and, by a chain of circumſtances, the ſole impoſt which was deſigned to furniſh eaſy reſources to the ſtate will com-

plete its ruin, by ſapping the foundation of its grandeur and proſperity.

After having proved that the different produce of the labour of the working claſs forms one branch of the wants of the ſervants of a ſtate, that the proportion they contribute to the ſupport of government is entirely at their own coſt (if I dare thus expreſs myſelf) that conſequently they cannot be replaced by a ſole impoſt on land, without augmenting the charge thereon, we will paſs on to the examination of the different arguments that œconomical authors uſe in defence of their favourite ſyſtem.

The firſt and their principal argument is this—"We agree that the proprietors of the ſoil will be charged more immediately by the ſyſtem we recommend, but we contend that this augmentation will not be equivalent to the indirect charge, which formerly ultimately fell on them by the increaſed contributions they paid to the working claſs, to reimburſe them the taxes they had before paid, Thus the ſole impoſt, although in appearance more burthenſome, will procure them a real relief by the cheapneſs of all the productions of the labourers."

To expoſe the fallacy of this reaſoning, it will be ſufficient to obſerve that theſe gentlemen conſider the labour of the workmen as an invariable *quantity*, whether they contribute a portion of the tax, or are exempt from it: but I much wiſh to know how they are aſſured of that? We will ſuppoſe that the contribution of theſe claſſes amounts to one tenth of the produce of their labour; now, when they ſhall perceive that nine tenths are ſufficient to afford them ſubſiſtence, with the ſame eaſe they enjoyed before the ſuppreſſion of the tax they had formerly paid, is it not very probable, or rather certain, they would retrench one tenth of their application to labour? From whence will reſult that the whole of their productions will experience an equal diminution, which, whatever writers may ſay, will inevitably deprive the proprietors of the advantage of the good market which they have the complaiſance to promiſe them.

2d. I do not recollect having met with the following argument in any of their works: nevertheleſs, as there is ſomething very ſpecious in it, I dare not paſs it in ſilence. They may ſay that the ſole impoſt, by taking from the proprietors a greater portion of their proviſion, will not, in the end, become more burthenſome to them; for the price of all merchantable effects augmenting in proportion as the quantity diminiſhes, they will, by this means, receive a perfect compenſation. The agricultural claſs will, indeed, have leſs proviſions to exchange, after having ſatisfied the ſole impoſt; but as the quantity which will remain to them will have acquired a price proportionably higher, it will anſwer to the ſame expences, that thus the ſituation of the proprietors will not be worſe, and that all the inconveniences which I have been deſcribing as the conſequences of the eſtabliſhment of a ſole impoſt, exiſt only in my own imagination.

To refute this argument, I ſhall content myſelf with remarking that there is in this caſe no diminution in the quantity of proviſions; for if the proprietors have a leſs quantity at their diſpoſal, in return, the ſervants of the ſtate have a proportionable quantity to offer to the labourers: for the maſs of proviſions not being diminiſhed by the ſole impoſt, it is impoſſible that that portion which will remain in the hands of the proprietors can have acquired a higher price, and can afford them a compenſation.

ME-

MEMOIRS OF MAHOMED BEN-ALI, THE MOORISH TRAVELLER, OFTEN MENTIONED, OR ALLUDED TO, IN THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE AFRICAN ASSOCIATION, JUST PUBLISHED, AND FROM WHOM THEY DERIVED THEIR MOST IMPORTANT INFORMATION.

[*Concluded from Page* 254.]

THERE was a man, called Chally Zamar, a native of Grand Caïro, as he himſelf gave out, who had been often employed by the Engliſh miniſters as a tranſlator of papers from the Mahomedan courts, but had not for ſome time been engaged in that way, on account of the extreme debauchery of his manners, particularly drunkenneſs, which rendered him unworthy of confidence. This man was in the habit of attending the Royal-Exchange every day, and preying, on various pretences of ſervice, on ſtrangers of his own religion from different countries. He faſtened on Ben-Ali, decoyed him into a lodging houſe in the infamous environs of Petticoat-lane, and laid him, beſides the extortions practiſed on him by wretches there, under heavy contributions, for his attendance, and letters which he wrote in his behalf, to perſons in power, &c. Ben-Ali, from extreme agitation of mind, occaſioned by misfortune, and great ſenſibility of temper, fell into a nervous fever. By the time he had recovered from this, he found himſelf lying on a wretched flock-bed in a miſerable hovel, without a ſhilling. His ſword, watch, rings, and other trinkets, brought a ſmall ſupply from a pawnbroker, which the claims of apothecaries and nurſes quickly exhauſted. He was reduced to extreme want, and obliged to make his wants known to ſuch of his countrymen as came in his way, and others.

The above-mentioned Zamar brought him to Dr. W. Thomſon, in Fitzroy-ſtreet, with a letter of introduction from Sylveſter Otway the poet, who, being maſter of the Arabic language, converſed with the unfortunate ſtranger, and, being of a ſympathetic diſpoſition, did all in his power to ſerve him. Dr. T. after much converſation with Ben-Ali in the French language, at his own houſe, always open to him, eaſily diſcovered that he was a man of uncommon talents, as well as moſt extenſive and various obſervation on men and manners, in different countries in Africa, Aſia, and Europe. Beſides the Arabic, his native language, and the Turkiſh, and modern Greek, he ſpoke the Italian, Spaniſh, Portugueſe, and French, with eaſe; and was now beginning to ſmatter a little Engliſh. He united the natural fire and ſubtlety of Africa with that accuracy and preciſion in thinking which a converſancy with Europeans of education and of rank inſpires. He poſſeſſed quickneſs of obſervation, ſoundneſs of judgment, ſtrength of memory, and an intuitive diſcernment of character. From the looks, manners, and even a few ſentences pronounced in certain circumſtances, he could form a ſhrewd conjecture concerning the diſpoſition and turn of mind of the perſon by whom they were uttered. To all theſe qualities he added the utmoſt urbanity and pleaſantry of manners. He profeſſed a firm belief in the exiſtence and providence of God, and patience and reſignation to his will; but conſidered Mahomedaniſm, as well as all other ſpecies of religion, not ſo much as objects of faith, as ſubjects of reſpect and local accommodation.

It occurred to Dr. T. that ſuch a man might find temporary ſupport at Oxford, under the auſpices of the learned, ingenious, and good-natured Profeſſor White, to whom he might act as a ſecond or aſſiſtant in the buſineſs of teaching the oriental languages. With a letter, accordingly, from Dr. T. to his friend Profeſſor White, Ben-Ali ſet out for Oxford. It was unfortunately a time of vacation

tion in the colleges; a circumſtance which Dr. T. had overlooked. Dr. White was not in town, nor yet many of the ſtudents. Ben-Ali ſhewed Dr. T.'s letter to ſome of the young gentlemen that were, as well as maſters in the Univerſity. A certain Vice-chancellor, with all the illiberality of a monk, treated him with unkindneſs, and ſeemed to take it amiſs that it ſhould be ſuppoſed to be poſſible, that any aſſiſtance in teaching languages ſhould be wanted at Oxford. Very different from the behaviour of this pedant was that of Dr. Thomſon, Profeſſor of Anatomy in the Univerſity of Oxford, who ſympathized with Ben-Ali's ſituation, paid his bill at the tavern, and furniſhed him with money to carry him back to London.

Dr. T. recommended Ben-Ali, for ſome ſmall aſſiſtance, to ſome gentlemen of his acquaintance in town, and alſo, as Ben-Ali was a maſon, to the Grand Lodge, and other lodges of Free Maſons. From the Grand Lodge, where he went as a viſitor on their great anniverſary, he received not one farthing. Their ſecretary, or treaſurer, to whom he was recommended, treated him with the moſt cool indifference: nor could the reſpectable certificates which he laid before them from the Lodge of the Univerſe at Paris, ſigned by a great number of the firſt nobility of France, be recovered out of his hands without great difficulty. In contraſt to this ſtands the conduct of the Lodge of Antiquity, who invited him to a meeting, and a convivial entertainment, and made him a liberal preſent in the politeſt manner: happy in an opportunity of exhibiting a proof and example, that the true maſon is not circumſcribed in his beneficent regards by any peculiarity of manners, religion, or country.

Dr. T. deſirous of ridding his Mooriſh friend of the pernicious ſociety of Jews and others who hung about him, and plundered him even when he lived on charity, removed him to a room in his own neighbourhood, hired at the low rent of three ſhillings per week, at Mr. Weſton's, a baker in Clipſtone-ſtreet. At Dr. T.'s he had the good fortune of becoming acquainted with a moſt amiable as well as ingenious gentleman, Mr. Cruden, through whom he was mentioned to Lord Rawdon, a member and ornament to the African Society. Lord Rawdon ſent for him, diſcerned his merit, contributed generouſly to his relief, and conceived the deſign of uniting this with the grand object of the African Aſſociation, by ſending him, in company with a gentleman of great probity, as well as ingenioufneſs, who had reſided fourteen years in Barbary, and with Dr. Swedian, a chymiſt and mineraloliſt, to explore the interior parts of Africa. The only members of the Acting Committee of the Society, in town, beſides the nobleman already mentioned, were, Mr. Beaufoy, the moſt active member, and Sir Joſeph Banks. Theſe gentlemen entered readily into the views of Lord Rawdon; but were not wholly without ſuſpicion that Ben-Ali might be an impoſtor. Mr. Dowdſworth, who had reſided long at Algiers, and other Mahomedan ports, in the character of Britiſh Conſul, was requeſted, by Mr. Beaufoy, to aſſiſt at a conference with Ben-Ali, intended to diſcover whether he was "a true man or no." The Moor, at the ſight of Mr. Dowdſworth, burſting into tears, threw his arms around his neck, and fervently embraced him. Mr. Dowdſworth was affected in a ſimilar manner. He knew Ben-Ali, and had had ſome dealings with him at Algiers; and readily atteſted that he was, in reality, the perſon whom he pretended to be. With his teſtimony, that of the Secretary to the French Ambaſſador here, who was equally well informed concerning the hiſtory of Ben-Ali, whom he had known in France, perfectly concurred.

It was reſolved that the African Aſſociation ſhould ſettle a ſmall penſion on Ben-Ali of three guineas per week, while he ſhould reſide in London. And that he, on his part, ſhould contribute, for the information

tion of the Society, all that he knew of Africa, and particularly of that part of it known by the name of Mount Atlas, which nearly interſects the peninſula. Meaſures were to be taken for ſending him, with the gentlemen already alluded to, on a miſſion into Africa: but if that deſign ſhould miſcarry, it was agreed on that Ben-Ali ſhould be ſent where he pleaſed, at the Society's expence; that they ſhould deſire Mr. Dowdſworth, who perfectly underſtands the Arabic, as well as the moſt improved languages of modern Europe, to take down in writing the reports of Ben-Ali, which undoubtedly form the moſt valuable part of that collection which has been SUPERBLY printed by the AFRICAN ASSOCIATION, for the peruſal of members, and is, as we are informed, ſoon to be printed on a *common* type and paper, for the information of the world: for, although the Editor conſiders Ben-Ali's information as ſecondary, and chiefly valuable as it tends to confirm the deſcription of the kingdom of Bornou given by a ſhereef; he is, in this, guilty of the greateſt ſoleciſm, as Ben-Ali's Travels are much more extenſive, even by his own confeſſion, than thoſe of the ſhereef; and as the evidence of Ben-Ali was direct, whereas that of the ſhereef was ſecond-hand and circuitous. The accounts given of ſuch parts of Africa as had been viſited by the ſhereef Imhammed were tranſmitted by Mr. LUCAS, who met with him by accident at Meſurata, a town on the Mediterranean, not above an hundred and fifty Engliſh miles from Tripoli. Inſtead then of ſaying that the ſhereef's accounts were confirmed by thoſe of Ben-Ali, would it not be equally proper, and more natural, to ſay, that the direct teſtimony of Ben-Ali was confirmed by the accounts that had been given, though *indirectly*, by the ſhereef Imhammed?*

Various modes and terms were thought of and propoſed for ſending Ben-Ali on a tour through Africa; an object which would certainly have been accompliſhed if Lord Rawdon had been the leading and moſt active member of the Society: for, as on the one hand his Lordſhip, who is verſant in the Oriental languages, and poſſeſſes ſuch a knowledge of men and things as enabled him to judge how fit an agent this Moor was for the Society; ſo, on the other, the Moor diſcerned in the manners, converſation, and ideas of Lord Rawdon, ſomething ſo juſt and noble, that he declared himſelf ready to undertake the propoſed expedition, if Lord Rawdon would enter into a covenant with him of bread and ſalt, that, on his return, he would uſe his influence, and the authority of his character, for obtaining ſuch a recompence for his ſervices as he might think they deſerved: a condition to which his Lordſhip, with equal generoſity and condeſcenſion, agreed.

The ſcantineſs of the Society's fund is an apology for every attempt to *marchander* as much as poſſible. But here it may at the ſame time be obſerved, that it was an uſeleſs waſte of money to lay it out in gorgeous books for the members of the Aſſociation. This is ill-judged, and even ſelfiſh munificence. A love of ſplendour is commendable, and in a manufacturing country, of great commercial utility. But the man deſirous of information and amuſement is more obliged by the facts and the arrangement in the late magnificent publication of a pantheon, than the beauty, however great, of the type or of the pictures. What reader of taſte but would wiſh for two books reſpecting the central parts of Africa, on a common type and paper, rather than one book printed on paper more coſtly than vellum? The money laid out, in this way, to no good purpoſe, with

* The great maſs of intelligence given by Ben-Ali reſpecting Mount Atlas, has not been publiſhed.

the

the addition of little more than as much would have ſufficed to purchaſe preſents and merchandize enough to carry Ben-Ali from weſt to eaſt, acroſs the peninſula of Africa, if diſeaſe, or captivity, ſhould not have interrupted his progreſs.

Though Ben-Ali, confiding in Lord Rawdon, as already mentioned, was willing to undertake the expedition propoſed, in company with the other gentleman, without exacting any formal ſtipulation of reward, the ſeaſon was ſuffered to elapſe; one member of the committee after another went out of town, and Ben-Ali, having communicated all that he knew, found himſelf alone and neglected; and this negligence, which occaſioned the death of the unfortunate Moor, deprived the African Aſſociation of ſuch an opportunity as they will never again enjoy, of exploring that continent from whence they take their deſignation, and added a new proof of the remiſſneſs with which ſocieties act, and of the maxim that all great undertakings are, for the moſt part, begun and atchieved by individuals.

A number of vagabonds, Jews as well as Moors, into whoſe company Ben-Ali had fallen, ſoon after his arrival in London, as already mentioned, underſtanding that he had been fortunate enough to obtain the countenance and protection of the African Aſſociation, harraſſed him by repeated applications for money. Ben-Ali, who had known affluence as well as want, had experienced the inequalities of fortune, and was naturally generous, gave them frequently, out of his weekly allowance, a crown, and ſometimes even half a guinea! But the more he gave, the more extravagant their notions became of the ſums that he muſt have received, and the more unreaſonable their expectations and their demands of farther contribution. Three men, among whom was a Moor who had, not many weeks before, got 50l. from the treaſury, (either on account of diſtreſs, or for ſome ſecret ſervice) came one evening to Dr. T.'s, and calling out Ben-Ali to a public-houſe, threatened to report in his own, and in all Mahomedan countries, that he had turned Chriſtian, which might probably prove fatal to him, ſhould he ever return from Europe; and, in the heat of altercation and paſſion, even threatened to aſſaſſinate him themſelves, if he would not give them a certain ſum of money.

Theſe threats having proved fruitleſs, they had recourſe to other machinations: they engaged a common ſtrumpet of Petticoat-lane to ſwear that ſhe was with child by him. This woman, with a Jew, who was to act the part of a bully, came to Ben-Ali, and demanded a ſum of money, threatening, in caſe of non-compliance, to put him immediately in the hands of certain pariſh officers. A ſcuffle enſued, in which the bully was worſted; ſo that Ben-Ali made his eſcape from him, and went immediately to Dr. T. then at Hampſtead, to ſtate what had befallen him. The bully procured from ſome juſtice a warrant for apprehending Ben-Ali for an aſſault. The ſtrumpet ſwore that ſhe was with child by him, before the veſtry of ſome pariſh about Biſhopſgate-ſtreet.

Dr. T. came immediately to town with Ben-Ali, procured an order from Sir Sampſon Wright for arreſting the Jew for a conſpiracy, which was done, and was bail, together with the maſter of the Croſs Keys, Wood-ſtreet, who ſtood forth, at the inſtance and the riſk of Mr. Dowdſworth, (as it was neceſſary that two houſekeepers ſhould give ſecurity) for his unfortunate friend, to the veſtry. The Jew alſo arreſted Ben-Ali; ſo that they were both confined in Bow-ſtreet together. The bully, finding that the ſtranger, whom he had marked for his prey, was not without friends, was terribly afraid, and on his knees ſupplicated his forgiveneſs, even with tears. Ben-Ali not only forgave him, but borrowed a trifle of Dr. T. to enable him to pay the officers fees and get out of confinement: yet the ſame wretch,

wretch, not many days after, was an accomplice in a ſecond conſpiracy againſt Ben-Ali, and it was this that, in its conſequences, involved his death. He came again to him, and told him that another woman, who ſung ballads in the ſtreets, was ready to ſwear that ſhe was with child by him, unleſs ſhe ſhould be bought off from her intention, which, through his mediation, might be done, by a ſum of money. Ben-Ali, on this, came again to Dr. T. to Hampſtead, in the utmoſt dejection, and anguiſh of mind. His diſtreſs was the greater, that he had, but a few weeks before, been countenanced and ſupported by the ſociety, and induced to believe either that he ſhould be ſent by them to aſſiſt in exploring the interior parts of Africa, or, at leaſt, that he ſhould continue to receive his weekly allowance when in England, and then be ſent to Marſeilles, or any other ſea-port he ſhould fix on. All theſe hopes, he ſaid, were now blaſted; he was left to the mercy of the loweſt rabble, who, he was convinced, would never ſuffer him to be at peace, and that his life was a burthen to him. Lord Rawdon had gone to the country, and it was uncertain when he would return.

Dr. T. endeavoured to comfort him, by explaining the laws of this country, which, duly executed, made the protection of Lord Rawdon, or any other chief, unneceſſary. That it was impoſſible that the African ſociety would be ſo unjuſt as to throw him off all at once, after they had ſerved their turn with him, and even in violation of their promiſe. He perſiſted in affirming that he had nothing elſe to expect. It was more than three weeks, he ſaid, ſince he had heard from them, or received his weekly allowance: and Sir Joſeph Banks (whom he always called Sir Joſhua Banker, and whom, from this confounding of names, perhaps, he ſeemed always to conſider merely as a man of buſineſs) he had obſerved, had ſet his face againſt him from the beginning, and would aſſuredly mar Lord Rawdon's deſigns and his hopes.

Dr. T. reminded him of the juſt confidence which he had always profeſſed to place in Lord Rawdon, who, whatever might be done by the Society, would never, as an individual, depart from thoſe gracious ſentiments which were implied in his agreement to enter into a covenant with him, by eating bread and ſalt.

He was greatly conſoled by this reflection, and dropped ſome hints of an intention to go to Lord Rawdon, wherever he ſhould be, in the country. It was, on the whole, agreed on between Ben-Ali and Dr. T. at this meeting, that he ſhould change his quarters, and conceal himſelf for ſome weeks, until his perſecutors ſhould, with the ſight, loſe thoughts of him; or until Dr. T. by the counſel and aid of Lord Rawdon, ſhould be enabled to defend him againſt multiplied attacks, which involved, beſides loſs of time, pecuniary expences. It was alſo ſettled that Mr. Weſton, his landlord, an honeſt and good man, who then accompanied him, ſhould be entruſted with the ſecret of his temporary concealment, and that, through Mr. Weſton, a correſpondence ſhould be carried on between him and Dr. T. while at Hampſtead. Ben-Ali acquieſced in this propoſal. He told the doctor that he had not any money. On an offer being made of half a guinea, he ſaid, as he had frequently done before, on ſimilar occaſions, "God forbid! you "have a family. I will not take "more than is neceſſary for one "night: lend me three ſhillings." Dr. T. made him take five. Ben-Ali went back to London, and Dr. T. never ſaw him more. Theſe incidents happened towards the end of July, 1789.

Dr. T. after ſome weeks of great ſuſpenſe and anxiety, recollecting the idea which Ben-Ali had once entertained of going, in his affliction, to Lord Rawdon, wrote to know if he had. His lordſhip's anſwer that he

had not, was accompanied with an offer of immediate aſſiſtance to Ben-Ali, when and wherever he ſhould be found.

Dr. T. offered a reward to ſome Jews, who knew Ben-Ali, for any intelligence they might procure concerning him. In conſequence of this, he learnt, in November, that he had been ſet upon by ſome banditti, who beat him in a very cruel manner on the head; and that ſoon after this, he was found dead, on the road ſide, near Belfort, in the pariſh of Higham, between Colcheſter and Ipſwich. He was carried to the pariſh workhouſe, by the pariſh officers, William Johnſon, a butcher, and Paſsford Scott, a farmer. It appeared, from ſeveral circumſtances, that he was on his return to London.

Thus periſhed Mahomed Ben-Ali, the greateſt traveller of his times, Mr. Bruce not excepted. What is ſet forth by Mr. Bruce as wonderful and new, and learned by him at the expence of great hardſhips and ſufferings, to Ben-Ali was familiar; and as he had taken a wider range than Mr. Bruce in Aſia, and even in Europe, he was capable of making wider combinations and more compariſons. Had Ben-Ali's days been prolonged, a volume of facts and obſervations, taken down from his mouth, would have formed a moſt valuable addition to the ſtores of geographical knowledge and of civil hiſtory.

The fate of this unfortunate gentleman, for a gentleman he really was, both in ſentiments and manners, is a proof that even in this iſland, this land of boaſted liberty, a man may be harraſſed even to death, if he wants money or powerful friends; ſince the combined efforts of both Dr. T. and Mr. Dowdſworth proved inſufficient to protect a ſtranger from the cruel ſtratagems of the loweſt and moſt abandoned of mortals.

TWO LETTERS ON ELECTRICAL AND OTHER PHENOMENA.

FROM M. ÆPINUS TO DR. M. GUTHRIE.

DEAR SIR,

I Acknowledge the pleaſure I have received in peruſing your paper on the northern climate, and certainly it would be difficult to give, with more method and intelligence, a clear and diſtinct idea of the peculiarities of our climate, *quod malus Jupiter urget*, and which diſtinguiſh it from other countries of Europe, placed under a more mild and temperate ſky.

I ſhall, therefore, comply, with pleaſure, in giving a circumſtantial account of the curious facts mentioned in your Diſſertation, as ſeen and authenticated by me; and ſhall, at the ſame time, avail myſelf of your permiſſion to communicate the remarks and reflections I have made on reading your intereſting Diſſertation.

The uncommon phenomena alluded to in your paper were as follow:

During the laſt weeks of the year 1766 and the firſt of 1767, we had conſtantly very ſtrong froſt, with the calm, clear, and ſerene ſky which generally accompanies it in this climate; and during its prevalence, her Imperial Majeſty having ſent for me one morning, ordered me to go to the apartments of Prince Orloff, in another part of the palace, who, ſhe ſaid, had, for ſome days paſt, become uncommonly electric every time his hair was combed.

I found the prince at his toilet, and obſerved, in fact, that, at every time his valet de chambre drew the comb through his hair, a pretty ſtrong, crackling noiſe was heard; and, on darkening the room, by drawing the cur-

curtains, the ſparks were ſeen following the direction of the comb in great abundance, whilſt the prince, by this operation, was become ſo completely electric, that ſtrong ſparks could be drawn from his hands and face; nay, he was electrified when he was only powdered with a puff, the friction of the air againſt his hair being able to produce a conſiderable degree of electricity; a curious experiment which, however, but ſeldom ſucceeded afterwards, when I was deſirous of repeating it. A few days after this ſcene with the prince, I was witneſs to a ſtill more ſtriking effect of the electric ſtate of our atmoſphere at this period.

The Grand Duke ſent for me one evening in the twilight, and told me that, having briſkly drawn a flannel cover off a green damaſk chair in his bed-chamber, which had been put on by accident, he was aſtoniſhed at the appearance of a ſtrong briſk flame that followed it; but having immediately, comprehended that it muſt have been an electric phenomenon, his highneſs had been trying to produce a ſimilar illumination on different pieces of furniture, and could now ſhew me a beautiful and ſurprizing experiment, that he had juſt diſcovered. His highneſs then threw himſelf on his bed, which was covered with a damaſk quilt, laced with gold, and rubbing it with his hands, in all directions, the young prince, who had then reached his twelfth year, appeared to be ſwimming in fire, as, at every ſtroke, flames aroſe all round him, which, darting to the gold lace border, ran along it, and up that of the bed, to the very top.

Whilſt his highneſs was ſhewing me his experiment, Prince Orloff, who had been making many different trials of his perſonal electricity, ſince the day I ſaw him at his toilet, came into the room with a ſable muff in his hand, and ſhewed us that, by whirling it five or ſix times round his head in the air, he could electrify himſelf ſo ſtrongly as to ſend out ſparks from all the uncovered parts of his body; another proof that the ſimple friction of air againſt hair could produce electricity. Similar experiments were repeated in many houſes of the city, whilſt the ſtrong froſt prevailed; which ſhews that the uncommon diſpoſition of bodies to electricity, during the period treated of, was general.

Theſe curious phenomena have appeared from time to time ſince that epoch, particularly during the ſevere cold which has prevailed for ſome weeks paſt. A few days ago, a lady of my acquaintance informed me that, on having her head combed, not only her hair ſhewed the ordinary ſigns of electricity, but that, after the comb had been drawn through, it buſhed out in a moſt ſurprizing manner, by the natural repulſion of the hairs, and occaſioned, on riſing upon her head, a moſt ſingular and diſagreeable ſenſation, which would certainly have frightened her terribly, if ſhe had not inſtantly gueſſed the cauſe.

It muſt not, however, be taken for granted, that theſe appearances are quite common here, or that they appear every winter, although we never fail to have 24° and upwards of cold, by Reaumur's ſcale. No; to render theſe effects very remarkable, a great cold muſt have continued ſeveral weeks, without abating, as I ſhall explain in the ſequel.

I ſhall here, likewiſe, account for a curious fact mentioned above, which muſt have drawn the attention of the reader, viz. that Prince Orloff became electrified whilſt ſitting at his toilet on a chair, on the bare floor, or on walking in the Great Duke's apartment, without any ſpecies of apparatus to cut off his communication with the naked boards; but he was in fact inſulated in both ſituations, as the inlaid floors were become as completely ideo-electric as glaſs or roſin, from the high-dried ſtate to which they were reduced by an exſiccating quality of the atmoſphere, and conſtant waxing. Now, as I obſerve, Sir, that in your paper on our climate, you enter into

ſome reaſoning on theſe phenomena, I preſume my opinion on them will not be diſagreeable to you.

The great diſpoſition, then, of air, and other bodies, to become electric, during great degrees of cold continued for a certain time, always appeared to me to be eaſily explained, that I looked upon it as a ſimple corollary of the beſt known of the laws of electric force, and as ſuch, that it did not require to be deduced from it in a formal manner. However, that you may know on what I founded that ſuppoſition, I ſhall obſerve that, 1ſt, nothing indicates air, and other bodies, to contain, during ſevere froſt, an atom of more electric matter than their mutual quantity; and they are certainly not in a ſtate of ſpontaneous electricity, becauſe, to render them electric, friction muſt be employed, as at all other times; ſo that all the uncommon appearances above-mentioned are reduced to this, that, by means of friction, bodies, in the above ſtate of the atmoſphere, become more eaſily, and more ſtrongly electric than at any other time, which does not indicate a larger quantity of electric matter, but a greater diſpoſition to receive it.

2dly. There is no neceſſity, then, to enquire, why air, ſilk, wool, hair, wood, &c. contain a greater quantity of electric matter in this than in another ſeaſon, ſince the fact does not obtain; ſo that the queſtion left for inveſtigation is only, Why they poſſeſs, during ſevere cold, a greater aptitude or diſpoſition to become electric, than in any other ſtate of the atmoſphere? or, in other words, why they become, in a more eminent degree, ideo-electric?

3dly. Air poſſeſſes, like the other fluids, we call *menſtrua*, the power of diſſolving different bodies, eſpecially water, which laſt proceſs we term evaporation, and, like the other menſtrua, this power is modified by the degree of heat it poſſeſſes, ſo that, *cæteris paribus*, warm air can diſſolve, and hold in ſolution, a much greater quantity of water than cold air.

4thly. Suppoſe that air, heated to a given degree, holds in ſolution as much water as is able to diſſolve, that is to ſay, that it is ſaturated with it, and it then cools down ſo conſiderably that it cannot hold in ſolution the ſame quantity it did at firſt; there ſhould, in that caſe, take place a large precipitation, or a large portion of the diſſolved water ſhould ſeparate itſelf from the cooled air; ſo that it muſt remain charged with a much ſmaller quantity than before it loſt its heat.

5thly. It follows, then, that the atmoſphere is never drier than during great froſt, and never more humid than during great heat; and this aſſertion will appear a paradox only to thoſe who confound a dry with a drying air, and a wet with a wetting air; or who do not recollect that a dry air may not be of a drying nature, and that a humid atmoſphere may not be of a wetting quality. I hope, likewiſe, nobody will maintain that the apparent purity and perfect tranſparency of the air, in a fine ſummer day, is a proof of its not being charged with heterogeneous matter, as that tranſparency is only the effect of a perfect ſolution of the water it contains. It is evident, by the common chemical operations, performed every day, that every perfect ſolution is clear and tranſparent, and that when it becomes turbid, a precipitation is at hand. Let us confirm this fact, Sir, by a phenomenon we have an opportunity of ſeeing very often in ſummer, viz. that we ſhall find the air full of broken clouds in the morning, which vaniſh under our eye whilſt looking at them as the ſun riſes higher above the horiſon, in the ſame manner as chemical ſolutions become turbid on cooling, and clear again on heating.

6thly. This extraordinary dry air penetrates into our apartments, either gently and inſenſibly, through chinks, or rapidly and perceptibly when our ſtoves are lighted each morning, once in twenty-four hours, at leaſt. The external air thus introduced, ſoon acquires

quires the temperature of the chamber, which is commonly from 12° to 15°, or more, of Reaumur, (in the better ſort of houſes, for thoſe of the common people are warmer) and then recovers its diſſolving power, which the ſeverity of the cold had conſiderably diminiſhed, nay, almoſt entirely overcome; but as it now contains little or no humidity, it muſt, like other *menſtrua*, attack the humidity that it finds in the chamber, with a much greater rapidity than it could have done with the ſame degree of heat, had it not been thus purified (or dephlegmated, in the language of chemiſtry) by the cold. All the bodies, then, which happened to be in the room, muſt loſe of their humidity, or be dried much quicker than in any other ſeaſon; and, in fact, there is no houſekeeper in Peterſburg who does not perceive, to his coſt, this extraordinary drying proceſs, as our furniture warps, cracks, or ſplits, much more during the rigour of winter than in the hotteſt period of ſummer, nay, probably more than in any other country between us and the equator.

7thly. A natural reſult of this is, that, after our great cold has continued a certain time, the bodies mentioned above, viz. air, ſilk, wool, hair, wood, &c. are, in fact, without aſſiſtance from us, drier than during the reſt of the year, and probably more ſo than in any other part of Europe, except they are dried expreſsly by ſome artificial means.

8thly. Now the bodies I have enumerated are all in the claſs of imperfect ideo-electrics, and have, likewiſe, the common property of attracting moiſture, ſo that they can never be perfectly dry; but water is, after the metals, the moſt perfect conductor of the electric fluid, or the leaſt of an ideo-electric, I ſay, after the metals; for I think I have obſerved, and probably others have done the ſame, that water does not conduct quite ſo well as they do. But let that be as it may, theſe bodies cannot certainly imbibe water without becoming leſs of an ideo-electric, in proportion as they do ſo, and, of courſe, the more they dry again, the more they recover their natural quality.

The reſult upon the whole, then, muſt be that, during our ſevere cold, the bodies of which I ſpeak become ſpontaneouſly much better ideo-electrics here than they ever are in any other ſeaſon or climate; therefore, theſe bodies have an extraordinary diſpoſition to become eaſily and ſtrongly electric.

It cannot have eſcaped your penetration, Sir, that in all I have ſaid I have advanced only known and generally received facts, without admixture of hypotheſis, or conjecture of my own; ſo that the explanation I have given of the phenomena (alluded to in your paper, and which I was called upon to illuſtrate) ariſes naturally and neceſſarily from thoſe facts, in ſuch a manner, that it may paſs, in my opinion, for a demonſtration ſuch as is to be given in natural philoſophy.

It appears to me, then, Sir, that we are not obliged to have recourſe to the conjectures of Meſſ. Sauſſure, Bergman, Wilke, &c. to explain the above phenomena, as you appear to have been diſpoſed to do, in the paſſage alluded to, with a moderation that does honour to your mode of philoſophizing; nay, if we even inclined to employ them, I do not ſee how they would anſwer our purpoſe, being only hazarded opinions; but could they be verified, (which I doubt much) they would even then be of very little uſe to us, as they could contribute nothing to the perfection of the theory of electricity.

You muſt excuſe me, Sir, if I enter into any other diſcuſſion which the ſame paſſage of yours has likewiſe given riſe to. I mean the opinions which ſeveral of the learned have thrown out, of late years, relative to two ſorts of electricity.

It was I, Sir, as you know, who firſt gave riſe to that idea many years ago. I had proved, in my *Tentatem Theor. Electric. et Magn.* that the

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portions of matter belonging to every body in nature, repel one another. This propoſition appeared bold to ſome of the learned, as, indeed, it would have done to myſelf, before I had well examined, digeſted, and compared it with the analogy of nature.

The philoſophers you cite imagined they could remove this difficulty, by ſuppoſing the exiſtence of two diſtinct electric fluids, one of which is poſitive and the other negative. I ſhall confine myſelf at preſent to a few remarks upon that ſubject.

1ſt. Thoſe who would paſs that idea for a new theory of electricity different from mine, (and there are thoſe who attempt it) have not conſidered matters in their true point of view, for it is evident that a theory, founded on the ſuppoſition of two fluids, will coincide perfectly and eſſentially with mine; nay, the explanation of the phenomena, the reaſoning, and even the analytic formula which they draw from their pretended theory, is exactly the ſame as mine. But ſuppoſing their hypotheſis could be proved, there would reſult from it nothing new, except that it might furniſh an explanation of one of the fundamental facts on which I founded my theory, and which I did not follow, nor think important enough to inveſtigate the origin of, but was contented to admit it as an eſtabliſhed fact.

2d. My theory, in confining itſelf to ſimple, well-atteſted facts, neither aſſiſts nor denies the exiſtence of two, or even ſeveral fluids, which nature might poſſibly employ to effect the fundamental laws on which I have eſtabliſhed my theory, for when I make uſe of the expreſſion *matter proper to bodies*, it is evident that it means what remains in a body after we have drawn off the electric fluid.

3d. In conſulting the analogy of nature, one cannot fail to recollect that all known bodies poſſeſs, beſides the Newtonian attraction, which is common and general to them all, another attractive force, or that which produces coheſion between two pieces of poliſhed marble, the aſcent of fluids in capillary tubes, and an infinite number of other phenomena. Now this laſt attractive force is evidently and eſſentially different from the firſt; for whilſt the one follows the inverſe ratio of the ſquare of the diſtance, it is proved that the other is in proportion to a power, into which enters the reverſe ratio of the cubes, and probably of ſome ſtill higher power of the diſtance.

If, then, both experience and the analogy of nature ſhew the poſſibility of the co-exiſtence of two attractive forces in the ſame body, governed by laws entirely different; and as a repulſive force is nothing elſe than a negative attractive one, my ſuppoſition of the repulſive force of bodies, contains nothing but what is perfectly conformable to the analogy of nature.

You alſo make mention, Sir, and with reaſon, of the frequent appearance of the beautiful phenomena of parheliums and mock moons in our climate, which enables us to be better acquainted with all the circumſtances attending them, than people nearer the equator. I paid a particular attention to theſe phenomena for a part of the years 1758 and 1759, and I think I have made ſome important obſervations on that ſubject; but it is not at preſent either the time or place to enter into them, eſpecially as I have already given the principal facts in a paper inſerted in the eighth volume of the Novi Comment. Academ. Scien. Petrop. p. 392, by referring to which I ſhall content myſelf at preſent.

It is now time, Sir, to finiſh this long letter, which has almoſt ſwelled to a diſſertation; and I ſhall do ſo, by aſſuring you that I am, with much eſteem,

Your obedient ſervant,

ÆPINUS.

St. Peterſburg,
Jan. 7-18, 1789.

SIR, *Jan.* 23, 1789.

AN idea has ſtruck me ſince I ſent off my laſt letter, which may poſſibly merit your attention, and therefore I ſhall give it you.

Both of us know how long ago, Sir, and we have probably felt it lately, that when a ſevere froſt has laſted for a certain time without intermiſſion, we may in vain ſtrive to prevent feeling its effects on our own bodies, as well as our furniture, although we even remain within doors in a comfortable ſpring heat, without expoſing ourſelves to the open air at all. It might be ſuppoſed that theſe precautions would be ſufficient; but they are, in fact, far from being ſo; for as ſoon as the ſevere cold has laſted ſome time, we find ourſelves attacked with a diſagreeable ſenſation, which, like all the reſt of our ſenſations, there is no deſcribing exactly. I ſhall, therefore, only ſay, that it conſiſts in a ſort of laſſitude and heavineſs, or torpor, affecting both the body and mind, joined to a troubleſome reſtleſſneſs or inquietude. Such are our feelings during the continuance of the above-deſcribed weather, and I ſhall next give you, Sir, my conjectures on the cauſe of this curious phenomenon.

In the letter I had the honour to write you ſome weeks ago, I proved that the great cold renders the air dry and pure, in a moſt aſtoniſhing degree, and that the heat which it afterwards receives in our apartments renders it drying in a proportion equally ſurprizing. Now, is it not poſſible that it is this ſame drying quality of our chamber atmoſphere which produces the ſenſations enumerated above? For why ſhould it not attack, under the ſame circumſtances, the human body as well as our wooden furniture, and all other bodies which happen to be in the rooms? Surely, what we call perſpiration muſt be much increaſed by it; and this conſumption of our excreted fluids may poſſibly be extended, I ſhould think, to the nobler fluids neceſſary to the functions of the animal œconomy, ſuch as what are called vital ſpirits, the exiſtence of which is ſuppoſed, with ſome degree of probability, without our being able to ſay what they are.

This idea appears the more likely, as it is known that the diſſolving power of air is not confined to water alone, but is extended to many other bodies. If, then, my conjecture is founded, there appears to me, Sir, a very eaſy way to prevent this ſort of diſeaſe; for, in fact, it is one, although but ſlight, and of little conſequence; we have only to give back to the air the humidity which the froſt had robbed it of, which may be done either by promoting the evaporation of a certain quantity of water in the room, or, what will be a much more convenient and ſhorter mode of doing it, to hang up a cloth of a proper ſize, dipped in water, and wetted, from time to time.

I ſubmit, Sir, theſe conjectures to your judgment; as all that regards the impreſſion which, in length of time, may be made on the human body, by a very dry and a very drying air, falls more immediately into your line, as a phyſician, than into that of

Your moſt obedient ſervant,
ÆPINUS.

You may make what uſe you pleaſe of this letter, and give it the ſame deſtination as the firſt, if you think proper.

ANECDOTE OF CHARLES XII. KING OF SWEDEN.

IN the citadel of Stockholm we were ſhewn a ſet of ſmall ordnance which belonged to King Charles XII. conſiſting of four and twenty braſs cannon, mounted on their carriages. Very early in life, before his

his love of deſtruction had occaſioned ſo many wild adventures, he uſed to amuſe himſelf with firing at objects with this artillery. Probably it would have been happier for him, as well as his country, if he had always been thus innocently employed. General Stenbork was the prince's inſtructor in this ſcience. He had diſcovered ſeveral improvements in the art of gunnery, and got this ſet of braſs cannon caſt to illuſtrate his principles to his royal pupil, for whom he intended them as a preſent.

There is an anecdote related of this prince, which happened at the time of his receiving the preſent. As it, in ſome meaſure, had an influence on his future conduct towards the ladies, I will tell it you, without, however, vouching for its authenticity.

Very early the next morning, after he had received this preſent, before it was light, he waited privately upon the general. After much knocking, the door was opened by a maid ſervant, and in a few moments the royal viſitor was at the bed-ſide of the general. After returning thanks for ſo acceptable a preſent, and a long diſcourſe on the general's new plan of ſending a cannon-ball to its greateſt diſtance, he took his leave, and was lighted down ſtairs by the ſame maid ſervant that introduced him.

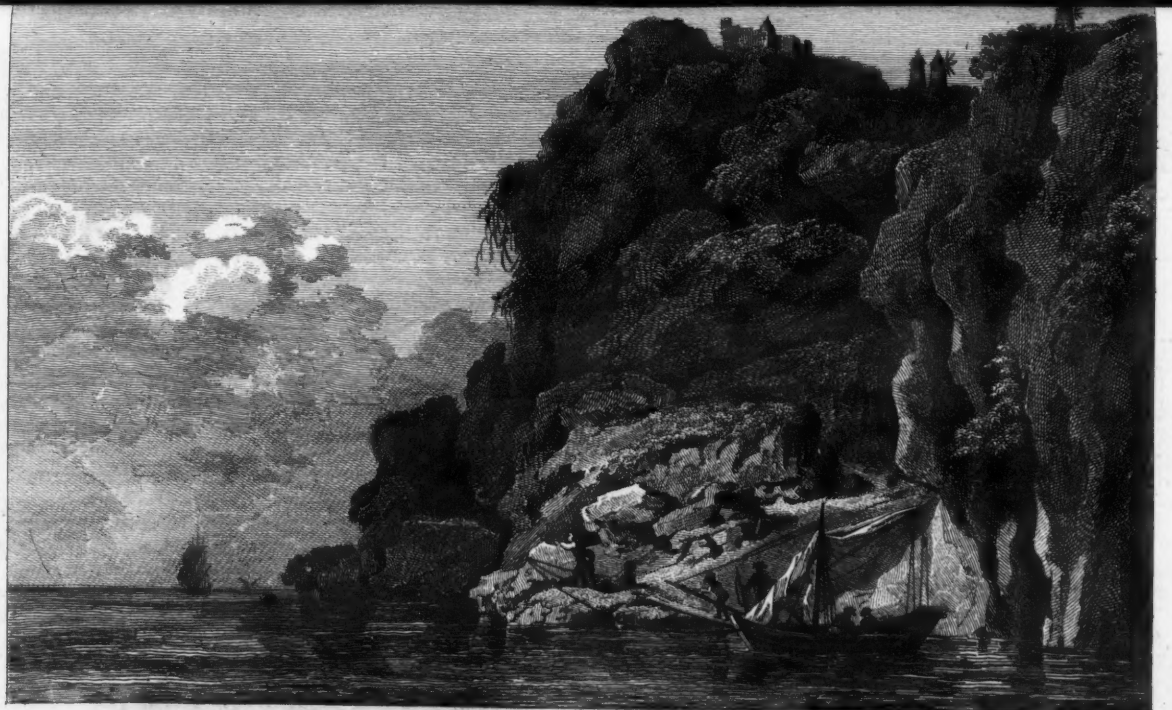
Though unaccuſtomed to acts of gallantry, and always upon his guard againſt exceſſes of this kind, yet for once Charles was ſurprized by an amorous inclination. Obſerving the attendant to be a young and handſome girl, he attempted to take ſome liberties with her which were not agreeable. Being a native of Dahlarna, and not knowing, or pretending not to know, the prince, ſhe gave him an hearty box on the ear.

From this time, it is ſaid, he took a diſlike to the fair-ſex: it is certain that he never afterwards ſought their ſociety. Even the beautiful Lady Koningſmark, who was reckoned the handſomeſt woman of that time, could never make any impreſſion upon his heart. When this lady found herſelf ſlighted, ſhe left the kingdom, and became miſtreſs to the King of Poland.

From that time, they never met but once; when that was I think I will inform you, as I am now in the humour for telling a ſtory. At the time King Charles the XIIth laid ſiege to Warſaw, he, with very few attendants, left the camp, and rode privately to the city, to ſee an opera which was to be repreſented that evening. The ſubject probably had attracted him, and he did not always conſider the conſequences of a raſh action. This was a repreſentation of a battle between the Poliſh and Swediſh armies, the former of which, upon *this* occaſion, was certain of ſucceſs. At the end of the mock-fight one of the Swediſh officers exclaimed, "We are undone now!" The king replied, "Let the Poles obtain the battle on the ſtage, but the Swedes in the field."

His voice was heard by Lady Koningſmark, who knew him at once, and with great anxiety diſpatched a page to apprize him of his danger. When the king received the meſſage, he looked towards the lady, who immediately fainted. The king and his attendants took the hint which had been ſo kindly given them, and returned to the camp, before the Poles gained the leaſt intelligence that that auguſt perſon had been preſent in the very heart of their city, as an humble ſpectator of the defeat of himſelf and his army.

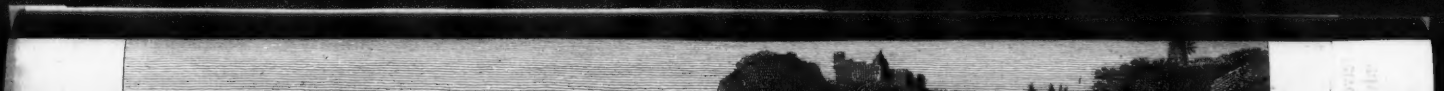
VIEW



View of Sikino

Morris Sculp.

Published as the Act directs, 1st Dec.r 1790, by C. Forster, 41 Poultry.



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VIEW OF SIKINO.

THIS view of Sikino, anciently *Sicinos*, one of the Cyclades, was taken by an ingenious French traveller, who has favoured the world with the picturesque voyage of Greece. He wished to land on this island, but on the approach of the boat, the inhabitants presented themselves armed, and could not be persuaded to permit his entrance: this view was, therefore, taken in the boat.

The island of Sikino, we are told by ancient authors, was called the *Isle of Wine*, on account of the fertility of its vineyards, and that it took the name of Sikino from Sikinus, a son of Theos, King of Lemnos, the only person of the island who was saved by the address of his wife Hypsipyle, in that cruel massacre in which the women cut the throats of their husbands during the night, on account of the preference they gave to the Thracian slaves.

Sikino still produces some wine, plenty of figs, and a little cotton. It is situated about eight miles from Nio, and is only about twenty miles in circumference. The wheat which grows here is said to be the best in the Archipelago. This island has been part of the domain of the Duke of Naxio, has a small town on it of the same name, which contains about 200 inhabitants.

At a Time when a Revolution is attempting in the Netherlands, we think we cannot entertain our Readers better than by presenting them with

AN HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

THE mighty empire, which Charlemagne formed in the beginning of the ninth century, and which embraced so large a part of Europe, did not long maintain itself in the same extent under the successors of that prince. In the Low Countries, which composed a part of that empire, Charlemagne had established governors, who, with the title of duke, marquis, or count, ruled under him in the different provinces.

During the reign of Charlemagne, and for some time after his death, while the reverence of his name lasted, those governors kept themselves within bounds of duty, but in succeeding times, when the reins of empire were slackened in the hands of his feeble descendants, and when the empire that he had formed was weakened, by its divisions, into distinct monarchies, the governors in the Netherlands, by degrees, withdrew themselves from obedience, and, paying only vain marks of homage to the kings of France and Germany, assumed to themselves, and transmitted to their descendants, the sovereignty of those provinces which they had before governed only with a delegated sway. Thus arose the Dukes of Brabant, the Counts of Flanders and Haynault, and the other princes of the Low Countries, already, in the eleventh century, possessed of independent power.

The provinces of the Netherlands, which were thus formed into small and distinct principalities, governed by their respective sovereigns, preserved that form for some ages; and during that period were acquired those important privileges which have since remained to the Austrian Netherlands. The princes of these countries, that they might better maintain their new-acquired authority, admitted to a share of their power the nobles, and the prelates, or abbots, who possessed the largest part of the lands. The people, depressed at first

in the Netherlands, as in other countries of Europe in that age, yet ſoon roſe here into conſideration. Collected in cities; they betook themſelves to commerce, for which their ſituation was favourable, and to arts, to which their genius was well adapted. The princes became ſenſible of the advantages that they might derive from the commercial ſpirit of their ſubjects, and encouraged their induſtry by numerous privileges. The people readily admitted the princes to a ſhare of their wealth; but whilſt they beſtowed their riches, ſecured to themſelves, in return, new franchiſes and immunities: thus, by degrees, a free conſtitution was formed. The cities, increaſing in inhabitants, and not eaſily controuled by princes whoſe dominions were of ſmall extent, became, as it were, ſmall republics, that were governed by their own magiſtrates, and whoſe voice had a mighty influence in the ſtate. Liberty ſpread itſelf from the cities into the country. The pride of the nobles was reſtrained, the power of the princes was circumſcribed, and the tyranny of the feudal ſyſtem diſappeared ſooner in theſe countries than in the moſt parts of Europe.

The wealth and greatneſs of the provinces kept pace with the privileges acquired by the people ſo early as in the thirteenth and fourteenth century. When moſt nations of Europe, and England in particular, were deſtitute of trade or induſtry, commerce and manufactures flouriſhed in the Netherlands, and proved to that country a plentiful ſource of riches. Above all, theſe provinces, now known by the name of the Auſtrian Netherlands, were diſtinguiſhed by their induſtry and opulence. Flanders and Brabant were filled with large and crowded cities, the abodes of wealthy merchants and buſy artiſans. The woven fabrics of Louvain, of Ypres, and other cities, employed the labour of multitudes, and drew into this country the gold of diſtant nations. Bruges was noted for its commerce, and the principal traffic of Europe was carried on at its port. Ghent ſurpaſſed all the cities of the Low Countries in extent and populouſneſs. The riches that flowed into this region, from the traffic and ingenuity of the people, were far greater than might be conceived from the rude ſtate of Europe in thoſe ages. The gold acquired by merchandize was employed in the improvements of the lands, and agriculture made here its earlieſt and moſt vigorous advances. The princes of the Netherlands, while their power was limited by the privileges which they had beſtowed, found their importance increaſe by the ſplendor of their cities and the wealth of their ſubjects.

In the beginning of the fifteenth century, a remarkable æra in the hiſtory of the Netherlands, all the provinces of the Low Countries, with a ſmall exception, were, from various cauſes, and by various means, united under the dominion of the Dukes of Burgundy, a younger branch of the royal family of France. Theſe opulent and flouriſhing provinces, which ſeemed to have been deſtined, by their ſituation, to form one monarchy, now united under the ſame government, formed to the Dukes of Burgundy the richeſt domain in Europe. The court of theſe princes diſplayed a magnificence that was not equalled in the courts of kings: their alliance was ſought by the greateſt monarchs, and they were often able to controul the power of the elder branch of their family, the kings of France. Under the princes of this houſe, the provinces of the Netherlands, knit together in union, and purſuing their arts of induſtry, attained to a greater degree of proſperity than in any former period. Their appearance at this time was ſo flouriſhing that it was likened by a celebrated hiſtorian* of that age to the plenty of the Land of Promiſe. The privileges of the people, the foundation of

* Philip de Commines.

their

their opulence, were reſpected. If inſtances occur in which the ſovereign, now become a powerful prince, may ſeem to have ſhewn too ſlight a regard to theſe privileges, theſe acts were tranſient, and wrought no great effect, and were compenſated by a general care to advance the intereſts of the people.

The marriage of Mary of Burgundy, in the end of the fifteenth century, to the Archduke Maximilian, carried the rich inheritance of the Dukes of Burgundy into the houſe of Auſtria. This houſe, which had for ſome time poſſeſſed the Imperial dignity, but which had yet reached no high degree of power, acquired a great elevation from the poſſeſſion of the Low Countries, which this fortunate marriage beſtowed; and having, not long after, by another fortunate marriage, acquired the great monarchy of Spain, that family ſuddenly became the firſt power of Europe, poſſeſſing a greater extent of dominion than had belonged to any empire ſince the days of Charlemagne. Under the firſt princes of the line of Auſtria, Maximilian, Philip the Fair, and Charles the Fifth, the Low Countries, maintained in their privileges, continued in a ſtate no leſs proſperous than under the Dukes of Burgundy.

The beginning of the reign of Maximilian was troubled by tumults, yet the public peace was ſoon reſtored by the prudence of that prince. The commerce of the Flemings was extended by the diſcovery of that New World, of which ſo large a part belonged to their ſovereigns. The glory of Antwerp aroſe, and ſurpaſſed that of Bruges. That part of the Low Countries which had not fallen under the dominion of the houſe of Burgundy was gained by the Auſtrian princes.* The Netherlands, though now a ſmall part of a mighty monarchy, yet conſiderable by their induſtry and opulence, engaged the attention, and often enjoyed the preſence of their princes. The Emperor Charles the Fifth, who was born at Ghent, viewed theſe provinces with a particular favour, and applied his care to the improvement of the Netherlands, which he gladly viſited, and whoſe natives poſſeſſed a high ſhare of his confidence.

On the abdication of Charles the Fifth, the powerful houſe of Auſtria was divided into two branches, the Spaniſh and the German. Spain, with the ſtates in Italy and the Indies, deſcended to Philip the Second, the ſon of that prince; and the Low Countries were united to this great monarchy. Auſtria, and the ſtates in Germany, with the Imperial dignity, paſſed to the brother of Charles, the Emperor Ferdinand, who poſſeſſed alſo Hungary and Bohemia, and whoſe deſcendants were deſtined at laſt to reap the ſucceſſion, though diminiſhed, to the Low Countries.

With the reign of Philip the Second commence the diſaſters of thoſe provinces that had flouriſhed ſo long, and the invaſion of thoſe privileges which ſo many princes had reſpected; an invaſion which wrought almoſt the entire fall of the Spaniſh monarchy, whilſt it drew manifold calamities on the Netherlands.

The doctrines of the reformed religion having ſpread into the Low Countries, and the ſevere edicts by which Philip ſought to ſuppreſs this hereſy, as it was called, having excited inſurrections, that prince, prompted by a tyrannic ſpirit and by religious bigotry, determined to enlarge the bounds of his authority in the Netherlands, and to reduce the people to a compliance with his will, by force of arms. A powerful army paſſed from Spain into the Low Countries, under the Duke of Alva, a fit inſtrument of deſpotiſm. All the ancient privileges of the provinces were then openly violated; new courts of juſtice were erected, and the nobles were condemned by that tribunal, fitly named the Council of Blood. Odious taxes

* Utrecht, with Overyſſel, and Groningen, the ſovereignty of the Biſhop of Utrecht.

were impoſed, and levied by ways repugnant to the conſtitution. The tyranny of Spain was introduced in place of the mild government of the Netherlands, whilſt the unrelenting inquiſition exerciſed her dark and ſevere perſecution. The inhabitants of the Low Countries, rouſed by repeated injuries, took up arms to defend their privileges, and conſpired in a general revolt from the authority of Spain. Then enſued thoſe memorable wars of the Netherlands, in the ſixteenth century, ſo well known in the hiſtory of Europe. The ſpirit of a people, animated with the love of liberty, prevailed againſt the tyranny of Philip; but the event of the conteſt was not the ſame in all the provinces. Whilſt the northern provinces, more zealouſly attached to the reformed religion, and determined to admit no conciliation with Spain, formed that confederacy from which aroſe the republic of Holland, thoſe provinces that now compoſe the Auſtrian Netherlands, with the provinces of Artois, more devoted to the Catholic faith, and gained by the prudence of the Prince of Parma, or ſubdued by his arms, after a war of twenty years, returned again into the obedience of Philip; but, when they conſented to obey, they ſtipulated, alſo, that all thoſe privileges which had been tranſmitted through ſo many ages ſhould be reſtored in their full extent, and for the future ſhould be preſerved inviolate; a condition to which Philip, now fallen from his pride, willingly acceded.

A mighty change was then wrought in the Low Countries. That union which the provinces of Burgundy had formed in joining the provinces of the Netherlands into one dominion, was diſſolved, and a laſting ſeparation took place between the northern provinces, or the republic of Holland, and the ſouthern provinces, which now reconciled to Spain and eſtabliſhing the Catholic religion, began to be diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Spaniſh or Catholic Netherlands.

Philip having gained this part of the revolted provinces, unwiſely diverted the arms of the Prince of Parma from the purſuit of his conqueſts in the Low Countries, and exhauſted, in vain enterprizes againſt England and France, thoſe treaſures and forces which might have been more ſucceſſfully employed to reduce that part of the Netherlands which refuſed to own his authority.

The reign of Albert and Iſabella ſucceeded in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century. The provinces which had returned to the obedience of Spain were for ſome time diſmembered from that monarchy to form a diſtinct ſovereignty, and the two branches of the houſe of Auſtria were united, to give to this ſtate its ſovereign. An interval of peace, during the reign of theſe princes, compoſed a little the ſtate of thoſe countries, convulſed by long war.

After the death of Albert and Iſabella, the Catholic provinces that had formed their principality in the Netherlands, were re-united to Spain, and remained a part of that monarchy under Philip the Fourth and Charles the Second, the laſt princes of the Auſtrian line that ſat on the throne of Spain. Under theſe princes their ſubjects in the Netherlands were not diſturbed in the enjoyment of their privileges; and by their fidelity to their ſovereigns they merited well that diſtinction: but whilſt in the poſſeſſion of their privileges, they retained a ſtrong pledge of public ſafety.

Many circumſtances conſpired, during this period, to reduce the Catholic provinces to a depreſſed and decaying ſtate. The wars begun in the reign of Philip the Second, had inflicted a deep wound on theſe countries. In that conteſt, their richeſt and moſt commercial cities had been plundered, many of the inhabitants had carried their wealth and induſtry into other lands, and when this part of the Netherlands returned to the obedience of Spain, and eſtabliſhed the Catho-

Catholic worſhip, a ſtill greater migration had enſued.

Theſe diſaſters were aggravated by other diſtreſſes, during the reigns of Philip the Fourth and Charles the Second. Holland, whoſe infant republic had acquired great ſtrength from the Flemings, who migrated into her States, now lifted up to mighty power, and gaining an entire triumph over Spain, after a war of eighty years, not only effected her own independency, but was able alſo to impoſe hard terms upon the Spaniſh provinces in the Low Countries. By the treaty of Munſter, the bounds of theſe provinces were diminiſhed, their commerce was reſtrained, and Antwerp felt deeply the jealouſy of her fortunate rival, Amſterdam. France, riſing to greatneſs under a young and aſpiring prince, and intent on humbling the Houſe of Auſtria, declared war againſt Spain, and turned the force of her arms againſt the dominions of Spain in the Low Countries. A flouriſhing part of that dominion was reduced under the power of Louis the Fourteenth; and the Spaniſh Netherlands, ſo long harraſſed by war, became again the ſcene of continual wars, kindled by that powerful and ambitious monarch. Spain ſinking and exhauſted, drew her provinces along with her in her fall; and the ill management of the affairs of that kingdom, under weak princes and miniſters, extended itſelf to her ſtates in the Low Countries, where the adminiſtration was truſted to rulers, feeble and unſkilled in the arts of government. Amidſt theſe complicated diſaſters, the Catholic Provinces experienced a fatal decline. Commerce and the arts withdrew to ſhores where they were more cheriſhed and leſs diſturbed; the cities, deſerted, ſhewed only in their wide extent the remains of their former greatneſs; the people were diſpirited; and whilſt the provinces of Holland, formerly the moſt inconſiderable in the Low Countries, attained an uncommon elevation, the Spaniſh Netherlands fell from their ancient proſperity into an humiliating weakneſs and decline.

Charles, the ſecond king of Spain, having long languiſhed, died in the firſt year of the preſent century, and with him ended the race of the Auſtrian Princes who had filled the Spaniſh throne. The death of Charles the Second gave riſe to a war that became general in Europe; whilſt the younger branch of the Houſe of Auſtria, that traced back its deſcent to the Emperor Ferdinand, brother of Charles the Fifth, and that had retained the imperial dignity in Germany, aſſerted its title to the poſſeſſions of the elder branch of its family againſt the Houſe of Bourbon, whoſe pretenſions were fortified by the will of Charles the Second. The Spaniſh Netherlands, now uncertain what maſter they were to obey, became the theatre of a long war; in which, Britain, with ſucceſs and glory to her arms, ſtrove to maintain the rights of the Houſe of Auſtria, againſt the pretenſions of France. The victories of Ramillies, Oudenarde, Malpalquet, recorded the ſucceſs of Britain at this time in theſe provinces, and the important ſervices which ſhe rendered to her ally.

The treaty of Utrecht, which reſtored the tranquility of Europe, gave the Spaniſh poſſeſſions in the Low Countries, to the German branch of the Houſe of Auſtria; and theſe provinces, now taking the name of the Auſtrian Netherlands, paſſed under the dominion of the Emperor, Charles the Sixth, to whoſe deſcendants they have ſince remained. Under the German Princes, this country, which had been harraſſed during almoſt two centuries by continual wars, has enjoyed the bleſſing of peace with little interruption. On the death of Charles the Sixth, the laſt male ſovereign of the Houſe of Auſtria, the poſſeſſions of the monarch deſcending to his daughter, the Princeſs Maria Thereſa, married to Francis Duke of Lorraine; the ambition of many Princes of Europe, and among others of Louis Fifteenth, King of France, who

who aſpired to ſhare the rich inheritance of the Houſe of Auſtria, kindled a war that extended itſelf to the Auſtrian Netherlands; and in which, Britain ſupporting the rights of a magnanimous Princeſs, combated again, though with leſs ſucceſs, the arms of France, in the Low Countries. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle compoſed this war, which was of no long continuance, and gave to theſe provinces a tranquility that has not till lately been diſturbed. By the continuance of long peace under Charles the Sixth, and the Empreſs Maria Thereſa, combined with the care of a more vigilant government, and with that free conſtitution which has been maintained, a happy revolution has been wrought in the affairs of the Auſtrian Netherlands. Since the peace of Utrecht, but more particularly ſince the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, even amidſt the hard reſtraints which the jealouſy or ambition of neighbouring powers has impoſed, this country has made rapid advances to improvements of every kind. That langour, which from many diſaſterous events had overſpread this part of the Netherlands, gives way to a riſing ſpirit of induſtry, that carries its activity on all ſides. The arts occupy again a people noted of old for their ingenuity; the cities aſſume a more animated appearance; agriculture flouriſhes; and commerce returns to viſit theſe regions, her early ſeat.

To the Empreſs Maria Thereſa, ſucceeded her ſon, the Emperor Joſeph the Second. In this Prince, in whom the illuſtrious Houſe of Lorraine, that ruled ſo long on the borders of the Low Countries, is united to the Houſe of Auſtria, commences properly a new family, the family of Auſtria-Lorraine.

ACCOUNT OF THE WEDDING OF A PERSEE.

THE Perſee, at whoſe wedding I was a gueſt, many weeks before hand ſent invitations to his numerous friends and acquaintance, to aſſemble at the fixed time, at a ſpacious hall, erected for the occaſion, in a beautiful field. It was the dry ſeaſon, when the air was conſtantly mild and ſerene, and the whole vegetable world breathed a delightful fragrance. The hall was formed by bamboos connected together, as is uſual in that country, and covered with cloth. It was a medium between a houſe and a tent, being leſs ſolid than the former, but more ſubſtantial than the latter. Here the company aſſembled, after the heat of the day was over, to the number of ſeveral hundreds. After a rich repaſt, which was ſerved with great regularity, we ſat out to meet the bride, meſſengers having arrived at the hall to announce her approach. The young Perſee was mounted upon a camel richly capariſoned, himſelf adorned with a multitude of jewels, and highly perfumed. A number of ſlaves walked by the ſide of the camel, holding an umbrella over the head of their maſter, while others fanned his face: the company had, as uſual, their palanquins. In the mean time we were entertained by a band of muſic, conſiſting of pipers, blowing very loud upon the great pipe with their mouths, and playing with their fingers on another; trumpeters, and a kind of drummers, beating upon what they call *tam tams*. The muſic was dreadfully loud, but to my ear not very pleaſant. There was only one tune; nor did I ever hear another during the ſix years I have been in India. We arrived at a village, where we were met by the bride, attended by an infinite number of female acquaintance, her near relations, and a crowd of ſervants. A gentleman's carriage in the ſervice of the company was borrowed for the bride. It was an open phaëton, drawn in ſlow proceſſion, by four beautiful Arabian horſes. The practice of borrowing Engliſh equipages,

pages, on matrimonial occaſions, is very common, and they are always lent with great good humour. As to the reſt of the ladies, ſome rode upon camels, ſome in carriages drawn by ſpotted buffaloes and bullocks, whoſe horns were tipped with ſilver, and their heads adorned with flowers, bound by ribbons. The bride was a tall and comely creature; her long black hair falling down over her ſhoulders, and then turned up in wreaths, elegantly adorned with embroidered ribbons and precious ſtones. It was at the moment when her huſband gave her the *ſalam*, in a modeſt and reſpectful manner, and at a ſmall diſtance, when ſhe ſtood up in the phaeton, veiled only by an umbrella, that I, who had the honour of being near the bridegroom, had a full view of his lovely bride.

At the end of the village an accident happened which interrupted, for a ſhort time, the joy of the day, and filled the minds of hundreds with the moſt alarming apprehenſions. The men, as well as the women, gave a loud ſhriek, and ran in a diſtracted manner, not knowing what they did: even the bride was for a moment deſerted by thoſe of her own religion and kindred, and left to the care of her European drivers. Some unlucky wag had, on purpoſe, ſet ſome ſwine adrift, that were kept by Portugueſe families; and it was the fear of being touched by theſe odious unclean animals that turned, for a few minutes, a day of joy into a day of lamentation. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the horror that both Perſees and Gentoos expreſs at the ſight of a ſow. The very form of that animal is offenſive to them, and makes them ſhudder; it appears as loathſome to them as a toad does to an European; and you may imagine the horror you would feel at the approach of a toad of the ſize of a ſow.

The ſwine being driven back, (in effecting which repulſe I may juſtly boaſt, that I was myſelf the principal hero,) we proceeded in joyful proceſſion to the hall, which, ſpacious as it was, was now inſufficient to contain our increaſed numbers: wherefore many of the company were ſeated on the graſſy plain, lamps being hung among the ſhrubberry on poles of bamboos, fixed without much difficulty in the ſoft and deep ſoil. The hall, illuminated without and within, diſplayed on both ſides various pictures of elephants and other animals, and alſo of men. The young Perſee's uncle, who ſhewed great attention to myſelf and other Europeans, informed us, that the portraits we ſaw were Perſian emperors. There is Koreſh, ſaid he; and, after naming a number of other princes, he pointed to Nadir Schah, and Kerim Khan, the preſent emperor. I cannot think that they could, either from tradition, painting, or ſtatuary, have any accurate notions, if any at all, of the particular ſtature, ſhape, and countenance of Cyrus: the artiſt muſt have been guided merely by fancy.

Various kinds of refreſhments having been, after ſhort intervals, preſented to the company, we were at laſt entertained with a ball, which laſted all night. The ladies were placed by themſelves on one ſide of the hall, and the gentlemen by themſelves on the other. The women wore their veils; but theſe were not drawn ſo cloſely over the face, but that we could get a peep at their eyes and noſes. When their veils were drawn back, in order that they might enjoy the refreſhment of being fanned, we could diſcover their necks and their fine hair. Indeed, on occaſion of weddings, the veil, as I have been aſſured, ſits more looſely on the ladies than at other times. There was not the leaſt communication between the men and the women; no, not a whiſper. The men converſed among themſelves, and the women obſerved a profound ſilence, looking ſtraight forward with inexpreſſible ſweetneſs and modeſty.

But now appears a ſpectacle which commands ſilence among the gentlemen as well as the ladies, and draws the attention of every part of the hall. A company of ſtrolling dancing girls from Surat, appear on a platform raiſed about two feet above the floor. Vi-

olins were now added to the band of muſic, and preſently the dance began. The *balladieres* (for that is the name by which the dancing girls are diſtinguiſhed on this ſide of Hindoſtan) are dreſſed in the gaudieſt manner that the luxuriant fancy of the Eaſt can conceive. Their long black hair falling over their ſhoulders in flowing ringlets, or braided and turned up, is loaded with precious ſtones, and ornamented with flowers. Their necklaces and bracelets are enriched in the ſame manner; even their noſe jewels, which at firſt ſight appear ſhocking to an European, have ſomething pleaſing, after cuſtom has worn off the effect of prejudice, and by a certain ſymmetry, ſet off all other ornaments. Nothing can equal the care they take to preſerve their breaſts, as the moſt ſtriking mark of modeſty. In order to prevent them from growing large or ill-ſhaped, they encloſe them in caſes made of exceeding light wood, which are joined together, and faſtened with buckles of jewels behind. Theſe caſes are ſo ſmooth and pliant, that they give way to the various attitudes of the body without being flattened, and without the ſmalleſt injury to the delicacy of the ſkin. The outſide of theſe caſes is covered with a leaf of gold, and ſtudded with diamonds. They take it off and put it on again with ſingular facility. This covering of the breaſts conceals not from the amorous eye palpitations, heaving, various tender emotions, nor aught that can contribute to excite deſire; while at the ſame time it leaves ſomething for the ſpectator to gueſs. The balladieres imagine that they heighten the beauty of their complexion, and the impreſſion of their countenances, by tracting black circles round their eyes with a hair bodkin dipped in the powder of antimony. On their ancles, beſides jewels, they wear bells, which they think have a good effect, but which, I confeſs, I do not admire.

When theſe girls dance, they do not hop, cut, and ſkip like our actreſſes in Europe; they never lift their feet high. Their dances would not be ſuffered, it muſt be owned, in an aſſembly of European ladies. They expreſs, by mute action, all the raptures and extravagances of the paſſion of love. When in deep retirement, concealed from every prying eye, the happy lovers, throwing aſide all reſtraint, yield to the irreſiſtible impulſe of the moſt ardent deſire of nature. Nor is mute action the whole of this ſcene. The girls accompany their wanton attitudes with laſcivious ſongs, until, overcome by the power of imagination, and the ſtrength of perfumes, their voices die away, and they become motionleſs, which is the concluſion of this *opera*, ſhall I call it, or *pantomime?* The ball laſted until morning. Refreſhments were preſented to the company at ſhort intervals during the night. The bride was accompanied to the houſe of her huſband only by her neareſt relations. The Hindoo ladies were in the like manner taken care of by their huſbands or kindred: as to the balladieres, they were eſcorted home by Europeans.

LETTER FROM DR. WILCOCKS, CHAPLAIN TO THE ENGLISH FACTORY AT LISBON, AND AFTERWARDS BISHOP OF ROCHESTER, TO A LEARNED AND INGENIOUS FRIEND IN LONDON, SEPT. 3, 1707.

SIR,

THE Conde D'Ericeyra, a nobleman of letters, and curious in natural knowledge, brought from the frontiers of this country a young woman, without a tongue, who yet ſpeaks very well. She is ſeventeen years old, but in ſtature exceeds not one of ſeven or eight. I was with her at the Conde's houſe, and made her pronounce every letter in the alphabet, which ſhe can do diſtinctly, except Q, which ſhe calls Cu, (after the common

mon pronunciation of all her country people. She hath not the leaſt bit of tongue, nor any thing like it; but the teeth, on both ſides of her jaw, turn very much inward, and almoſt meet. She finds the greateſt want of a tongue in eating; for as others, when they eat, move their meat about with their tongue, ſhe is forced to uſe her finger. She pretends to diſtinguiſh taſtes very well; but I believe doth it imperfectly. Her voice, though very diſtinct, is a little hollow, and like that of old people who have loſt half their teeth. The Conde, who is a friend to the Muſes, hath written the following epigram on the occaſion,

Non mirum eliinguis mulier quod verba loquatur
Mirum eſt cum lingua quod taceat mulier.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

TROISIEME LETTRE; *or a third Letter of the* Abbè Barthalemy, *addreſſed to the Authors of the* Journal des Sçavans, *on ſome Samaritan Medals.* 4to. Paris. 1790.

THIS letter contains the ſummary of a diſſertation read by the learned author at the Royal Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris. To the work is annexed a plate, containing five medals, two of Simon, two of Antigonus, and one of Jonathan; the latter never before publiſhed.

This medal has ſuggeſted ſome difficulties to the Abbè, which we ſhall extract for the benefit of our readers.

Of theſe having occaſion to ſpeak in the memoir preſented to the Academy of Inſcriptions in the year 1749, I procured an engraving from one in ſmall braſs, on which I had read *Jonathan, High Prieſt.* I cited a ſimilar medal in the cabinet of M. Cay, of Marſeilles, which had on one ſide the traces of theſe words, ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΡΟΥ, as well as others, repreſenting on one ſide an anchor with the ſame Greek legend clearly expreſſed, and on the other a kind of wheel, with Samaritan letters diſtributed between the ſpokes, but ſo ſmall that the *Tau* and *Nun*, terminating the name of Jonathan, could alone be diſtinguiſhed. Theſe medals I attributed to Jonathan, the brother of Simon Maccabeus, ſuppoſing them to indicate the alliance which ſubſiſted between Jonathan and Alexander, the ſixth King of Syria,

Abbè Bayer, who had juſt finiſhed the printing of his work on the Samaritan medals, entertained doubts concerning the reading of theſe, and wrote to me for explanations, but though my anſwer arrived too late, he condeſcended to inſert it at the end of his book. I was attacked by him with an uncommon ſhare of erudition, and a politeneſs ſtill leſs frequent. His objections fell on two points: 1ſt. Inſtead of Jonathan, ought not the name on theſe coins to be read *Johannes*, of whom we have coins preciſely ſimilar in metal, model, and types? I anſwered, that the four medals of the king's cabinet certainly preſented theſe four letters, *Jod, Nun, Tau, Nun*, which can form no other name than *Jonathan*. 2d. If this reading be adopted, (ſays Abbè Bayer again) theſe medals could not have been ſtruck by Jonathan the brother of Simon Maccabeus, but by ſome Aſmonæan prince, poſterior to Simon, and who to the name of Jonathan had joined that of Alexander.

The reaſons of Abbè Bayer are very ſtrong, and to me they appear more ſo, ſince I have reflected on the medals of Antigonus, named alſo Mattathias, and particularly as I have lately procured for the royal cabinet a medal of Jonathan, much better preſerved than thoſe before known: it is engraved under No. 5, and on its face exhibits, round an anchor, the two words ΒΑΣΙΛΕΙΩΣ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΟΥ, while on its reverſe I perceive, between the radii of a ſort of wheel, the words יהונתן המלך, that is, *Jonathan Rex.*

If I am not miſtaken in the reading I propoſe, this medal muſt throw great light upon the ſubject: by comparing it with that which I publiſhed in the year 1749, it becomes evident that upon the one the name is compoſed of ſix letters, and on the other no more than four; but as, on both

both medals the name of Jonathan is found associated with that of Alexander, it evidently follows both are referable to the prince. I formerly thought this prince could be no other than Jonathan, the brother of Simon Maccabeus, because he was the only one of his dynasty certainly so called. The new medal I now produce, plainly points out my mistake. Never did Jonathan take the name of king, which is expressed on the medal; the first who assumed it was, according to Josephus, Judas Aristobolus, who reigned but one year, and, according to Strabo, Alexander Jannæus, who reigned twenty-seven, and ascended the throne about the year 105 before Christ.

In the mean time, however, we have no other resource but conjecture. Abbé Bayer proposed to attribute the medals of Jonathan to one of the two Asmonean princes, who bore the name of Alexander, and which are Alexander Jannæus, and another Alexander, brother of Antigonus. It is necessary to wait for new discoveries before we finally decide.

DICTIONAIRE PORTATIF, *or, Pocket Dictionary; containing historic Anecdotes of Love, from the beginning of the World to the present Time.* Paris, 2 vol. 8vo. *With this Motto:*

L'Amour est le tyran des vieillards,
Et le Roi des jeunes gens.

LEWIS XII.

OUR lively neighbours the French have the happiest art at book-making of any people in Europe; of this the work now under our consideration is a sufficient proof. The mode of conveying instruction by a dictionary we must confess is extremely useful, especially to men of letters, whose heads, oppressed by deep studies, are often in want of a remembrancer. Yet if dictionaries have this advantage, we must, on the other hand, allow that these kind of works have encouraged that spirit for superficial knowledge, which gives young men an opinion of their own acquirements, and is of infinite prejudice to them.

However, if a dictionary of love does not present any thing of real utility, it certainly promises something agreeable. The choice in this selection is made with taste; but such a work will not admit of an analysis, and we can only confine ourselves to quotations. The article Bayle appears worth extracting.

Peter Bayle, a celebrated critic, was not insensible to love, if we may believe the Abbé Olivet, and experienced much vexation on account of that passion. While he taught philosophy at Sedan, he became enamoured of the wife of M. Jurieu, a protestant minister, and had the talent to please her. The academy of Sedan having been suppressed, M. Jurieu was obliged to quit the kingdom. Bayle was desirous of settling in France, from various motives: but the lovely eyes of Madame Jurieu determined him to the contrary. Rotterdam, the place to which he followed his mistress, was soon witness of the close connection between them. At last they convinced M. Jurieu, that he who could clearly discover so many things in the apocalypse, could not discern what passed in his own family. Men act differently in these cases, according to their profession: a soldier has recourse to his sword, the lawyer begins a suit, the poet composes a satire, and Mr. Jurieu as a theologian, denounced Mr. Bayle as an infamous wretch, and deprived him of his chair as professor of philosophy and history, which had been erected in his favour.

The young people of Montpellier celebrate an annual festival, called the feast of the horse; the origin is singular. It has been established ever since Peter II. king of Arragon, who espoused Maria, only daughter of William, Count of Montpellier.

This prince fell deeply in love with a young woman of that city, named Catharine Rebuffie; a passion which caused him to neglect the queen his wife. His aversion to his wife daily encreasing, there was reason to fear the king would have no heirs, but for a stratagem made use of by the beautiful Catharine. She put the queen in her bed, on a night in which she expected the king. Peter did not distinguish the difference, and was afterwards highly pleased with an innocent device, to which he was indebted for the birth of a son who succeeded him, under the name of James II.

Catharine was too much attended to by the people, and too well beloved by the king. He carried his passion so far as to enter the city of Montpellier publicly on a white palfrey, carrying his mistress behind him. The inhabitants, flattered with the honour bestowed on their fair countrywoman, requested a gift of the palfrey; and having obtained it, imposed on

on their city the task of taking care and providing for it. It lived twenty years, and made its public appearance only on the anniverſary of the day on which the king had made his public entry. It was led round the city, the way ſtrowed with flowers, and attended by the young people ſinging and dancing. The inhabitants grew inſenſibly attached to this kind of feſtival. After the death of the horſe, they took care to have its ſkin ſtuffed, and continued the ſame ceremony annually.

It is from this circumſtance the feaſt of the horſe had its riſe. A young man mounted on an artificial horſe, properly capariſoned, moves on, attended by the ſound of hautboys and tambourines; one of the attendants with a timbour dances round the horſe, and ſeems to feed the horſe with hay. Twenty other dancers attend the horſe dancing likewiſe.

The anecdotes in this work are very numerous, and ſome of them entertaining.

HISTOIRE DES HOMMES RUBLICS TIRES DU TIERS ETAT; AVEC UN DISCOURS SUR LES AVANTAGES ET LES ABUS DE LA NOBLESSE: ADRESSE A M.M. DE L'ASSEMBLEE NATIONALE, PAR M. TURPIN, a Paris, 1789. *A Hiſtory of Public Men of the Third Eſtate, with a Diſcourſe on the Advantages, and on the Abuſe of Nobility, &c.*

THE object of Mr. Turpin in this publication, we may learn from his Addreſs to the Deputies ſent to the National Aſſembly, whom he calls the *fathers of their country*.

"It is to you that the glory was "reſerved of creating a new race of "men. Formerly we had heroes, "but no citizens. Cheriſh the ſa"cred fire (of liberty) which is ſoon "to make France the firſt nation in "the world. Widen the path which "has hitherto been ſhut to the moſt "numerous claſs of the people. Let "the ſtate compoſe but one family. "And let all the children of the ſame "mother be called to the ſame inhe"ritance. Tear off the bandage of "opinion, that, under the guidance "of your laws, and the ſanctity of "your morals, our *Graſſi* may learn "that the retrenchment of a few uſe"leſs valets, and other domeſtic ani"mals, will furniſh the means of "making offerings to their country as "honourable as their luxury is ru"inous. That our youth may be "brought up in a contempt of thoſe "diſſipated mortals, the votaries "not ſo much of pleaſure as debau"chery, who laviſh on a *Rhodope* and "a *Phryne* ſums that would equip a "ſhip of war, or maintain a legion."

His preliminary diſcourſe on the advantages and diſadvantages of nobility, he concludes with a warm exhortation to all the duties of patriotiſm, and particularly to make liberal donations and other ſacrifices to the State.

The characters exhibited in this volume, are thoſe of the famous Naval Commander Paulin, known alſo by the name of the Baron de la Garde; the Chancellor L'Hopital; the Mareſchal Fabert; and the Admiral Duguay-Trouin. Theſe men were the artificers of their own fortune and glory: and whoever contemplates their lives and actions, will be ſtrongly impreſſed with the maxim that true nobility conſiſts ſolely in talents and virtue. All that courage and magnanimity, all that *tranſ* of conſcious reſtitude and elevation of mind that we admire in the moſt diſtinguiſhed princes, heroes, and philoſophers, whether of ancient or modern times, ſhone forth conſpicuouſly in thoſe illuſtrious commoners, who have found in M. de Turpin an hiſtorian worthy of their merit.

The amiable ſimplicity of manners, the inflexible juſtice of the Chancellor L'Hopital, "who made "many enemies, but no friends a"mong the great," form a portrait particularly noble and affecting.

Titles of nobility are abolished in France, and the pageantry of heraldry is happily exchanged for the records of hiſtory.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

An Historical Developement of the Political Constitution of the Germanic Empire. *By J. S. Pütter, Privy Counſeller of Juſtice, &c. Tranſlated from the* German, *by* Joſiah Dornford, *of* Lincoln's Inn, L.L.D. Vol. III. Payne.

[*Concluded from page* 292.]

THIS volume commences at the death of Charles VI. and is divided into four books, the XIth, from the above period to the peace of Aix la Chapelle, 1740 to 1748, the XIIth, to the election of Joſeph II. as king of the Romans, 1748 to 1764, the XIIIth, from thence to 1780, and the XIVth contains general obſervations on the conſtitution of the Germanic empire as it exiſts at preſent.

From this volume, alſo, we ſhall make a few extracts; and firſt of a ſubject much talked of, but little underſtood, the *Pragmatic Sanction*.

The grand object which attracted the attention of every one on the death of Charles VI. and on which almoſt all the other affairs of ſtate depended, was the queſtion, Whether the Pragmatic Sanction, the confirmation of which the deceaſed emperor had had ſo much at heart, would continue valid? As far as was then known, the oppoſition of the court of Munich to the Pragmatic Sanction was the only obſtacle not yet removed. The Elector of Bavaria did not ground this oppoſition ſo much upon the right of his conſort, as a daughter of the Emperor Joſeph, as upon his own perſonal claims in right of his great, great, great grandmother on his paternal ſide, the wife of Albert V. Duke of Bavaria, who was the daughter of the Emperor Ferdinand I. and though ſhe had, at the time of her marriage, made the uſual renunciation of her claims in favour of her brother and his male offspring, yet, notwithſtanding this, ſhe had made a reſervation of her rights, in caſe of the extinction of the Auſtrian male line, and their poſterity.

This kind of claim, which is uſually called a *regredienterbſchaft*, (regreſſive inheritance) is ſo far well founded, that the daughter of a prince, and her deſcendants, if they ſurvive the male line, to which they muſt yield, the family inheritance can no longer be injured by any former excluſion, or renunciation of right. For as far as the queſtion does not concern any feudal eſtates, to which no female whatſoever can ſucceed, according to the right of ſucceſſion eſtabliſhed by cuſtom in Germany, daughters and female deſcendants in the houſes of princes, when the male line is totally extinct, have a right to claim the inheritance, ſince the priority allowed to the male branch no longer exiſts, to prevent it.

So far the Elector of Bavaria might legally aſſert an excluſive preference as a deſcendant in the female line from Ferdinand I. becauſe the male deſcendants of that prince had hitherto ſucceeded as the heirs of the Houſe of Auſtria; and the renunciation made in their favour by Ferdinand's daughters, from whom the elector deſcended, now that the Auſtrian male branch was extinct could not be urged againſt him. In ſhort, there is no doubt but that the right of ſucceſſion of all the deſcendants in the female line, of the Houſe of Auſtria was now open, and that the right of inheritance of the former male branch no longer exiſted.

But another queſtion ariſes here, on which the whole of the buſineſs turns. Was the right of inheritance, which devolved to all the deſcendants in the female line, to deſcend in an equal degree? Or was there a certain order to be obſerved, ſo that one branch ſhould regularly ſucceed the other in the enjoyment of the inheritance; ought not the more diſtant branches to give place to thoſe that are nearer, and how was this degree of conſanguinity to be legally determined?

We muſt here conſider the nature of the caſe, the mode of ſucceſſion in the houſes of the ſtates of the empire; and that there is a great difference between the right of ſucceſſion and the order of it. The right of ſucceſſion in the male line of a princely houſe deſcends immediately from the firſt proprietor to all his deſcendants; and this right can never be tranſferred to a ſtranger, or alienated to his diſadvantage. But, in order to preſerve this right, the younger ſons, in houſes where the right of primogeniture is eſtabliſhed, or diſtant branches, as long as there are any nearer heirs, muſt wait till they ſucceed in order; and the circumſtance of the ſucceſſion not falling to their lot during their life muſt be conſidered merely

merely as a matter of chance. In the ſame manner, it is equally conſiſtent on the extinction of the male branch, for the right of ſucceſſion to be open in the ſame order to the deſcendants of females; that is, that the incapability of ſucceſſion which depended on the priority of the males, can no longer be preſumed. But does it follow, on this account, that the right of ſucceſſion is, in that caſe, equal to all? By no means! Neither will any one pretend to aſſert, that all the deſcendants of the former Auſtrian princeſſes could claim the right of ſucceſſion without diſtinction, on the death of Charles VI.

Upon what grounds, then, was the order of ſucceſſion, in the preſent caſe, to be determined? Here again the point is ſettled; that though the right of ſucceſſion is always derived, without diſtinction, from the firſt poſſeſſor, becauſe no future poſſeſſor can deprive the other deſcendants of the firſt of it: and in this reſpect the German differs from the Roman mode of ſucceſſion, by which the poſſeſſor was indebted to the laſt deceaſed; yet, with reſpect to the order of ſucceſſion, according to all laws, however they are called, it cannot be otherwiſe than that one muſt wait for the death of the other, and regularly ſucceed, according to his near or diſtant degree of conſanguinity.

It is not neceſſary to enquire here whether this degree is to be determined by the tables contained in the Roman laws, according to the precedency of primogeniture, or other principles. It is enough that, where the queſtion relates to the order, and not to the right of ſucceſſion, every thing depends upon the proximity of relationſhip. And here, likewiſe, another important principle in the German right of ſucceſſion muſt be conſidered, that when an inheritance once devolves to any particular line, it continues in that line till it is totally extinct.

If we apply this to the Auſtrian Pragmatic Sanction, we ſhall find that it was perfectly agreeable to the ſyſtem tranſmitted from time immemorial, in the princely houſes, for the right of ſucceſſion on the death of Charles VI. to be open to all the female deſcendants, and that no preceding renunciation could be urged to their prejudice; but, in the order of ſucceſſion, in the preſent inſtance, the daughters who were laſt deceaſed preceded the daughters of the brother deceaſed before, and all the diſtant female deſcendants of the former princes of the houſe.

If the Archduchefs Anna, therefore, when ſhe was married to Duke Albert V. of Bavaria, had made no renunciation, ſtill ſhe would not have had a right of ſucceſſion ſo long as any of the male offspring of either of her brothers lived; and ſuppoſing even that ſhe made the renunciation only until the extinction of the male deſcendants, ſtill it could not be on that account pretended that when this event happened a right revived, which might have been enforced at the time of the renunciation; or rather, that the poſterity of this Archduchefs Anna was to take place of all the other female deſcendants, and even before the daughters of the male heir, who was laſt deceaſed.

In ſhort, according to the real principles of the rights of the Germanic princes, the claims of the Bavarian houſe were not of ſuch a nature as to invalidate the legality of the Pragmatic Sanction; though at that period many lawyers, who had imbibed the inapplicable principles of the Roman code, conſidered the doctrine of regreſſive inheritance in general as thoroughly eſtabliſhed: but here, however, the matter was referred to a very different deciſion than the mere authority of a code of laws.

Maria Thereſa, upon the ſtrength of the Pragmatic Sanction, which was guaranteed by ſo many powers, as ſoon as her father died, took immediate poſſeſſion of all his territories. She alſo flattered herſelf that her conſort, the Grand Duke of Tuſcany, would have the majority of votes in his favour at the election of an emperor. At Vienna it ſeemed to be generally thought, and not without the greateſt probability that the votes of Mentz, Treves, Saxony, and Hanover, were certain; and reckoning the ſingle vote of Bohemia, the election then was gained.

We ſhall treſpaſs on our readers patience by another extract, deſcribing the particular ſources of the great variety among the ſtates of Germany.

A circumſtance, without which it is impoſſible to form a juſt idea of the Germanic empire, and the particular ſtates of which it is compoſed at preſent, is, that a number of countries, each of which had formerly its own particular ſovereign, have devolved in latter times to one territorial lord. A conſiderable number was included, by the peace of Weſtphalia, among the ſecularized territories ceded to Sweden, and the houſes of Brandenburg, Mecklenberg, and Heſſe; after which the biſhopricks likewiſe in the circle of Upper Saxony remained in the poſſeſſion of the houſes of Saxony and Brandenburg. But the chief cauſe of the reigning houſes becoming extinct at preſent much more frequently than formerly, muſt be attributed to the right of primogeniture, which has lately been ſo generally introduced,

ſtood, according to which it uſually happens that only the eldeſt ſon of a houſe can marry ſuitably to his rank, and perpetuate his family, while the younger ſons have no reſource but to paſs their lives either in the army or in religious foundations. Several branches into which the houſes of the ſtates of the empire were formerly divided, have, owing to this circumſtance, gradually become extinct, and their territories have devolved either by means of pacts of confraternity, reverſion, the conſolidation of fiefs, or from ſome other cauſe, to other ſtates.

Many of the ſtates have in this manner gradually acquired ſuch an increaſe of territory, that there is no compariſon between the power, which moſt of them enjoy at preſent, and that which individuals could boaſt of formerly, at leaſt at the time of Henry the Lion. This has generally had a conſiderable influence upon the conſtitution of the countries themſelves. Many counties, or ſeigniories, which were formerly immediate, are now incorporated with more extenſive countries, and there are ſcarcely any traces left of their having originally been ſeparate territories, ſubject to their own lords. There are ſome inſtances of two, or even ſeveral countries, which were originally totally independent of each other, being united, like England and Scotland, in Great Britain; as Juliers and Berg; the different countries which now compoſe the electorate of Saxony, and ſeveral others. Some countries, although they have devolved to other ſtates, have nevertheleſs preſerved their own offices of government, and courts of juſtice, their provincial ſtates, mode of taxation, laws, &c. and the only difference is, that the ſovereign himſelf is no longer reſident; but that they are ſubject to a prince at ſome diſtant place, as in the many inſtances which have lately occurred with reſpect to the extinct houſes of Saxe-Eiſenach, Oſtfrieſland, Brandenburg-Bayreuth, Baden-Baden, and others. It has frequently happened, likewiſe, that a ſtate, upon ſucceeding to a more extenſive territory, has left his former reſidence, and fixed his court in the newly-acquired capital; as in the late inſtances of the removal of the court of palatine Bavaria from Mannheim to Munich, and the court of Heſſe from Hanau to Caſſel.

The conſequence of this is an evident difference between thoſe countries, in which the ſovereigns are reſident, and others. The latter are not only deprived of the advantages uſually reſulting from the neighbourhood of a court, with reſpect to the ſubſiſtence of the people; but it often happens that they are left to their own colleges of government or a ſtadtholder, though always in a ſtate of dependence on their diſtant ſovereign, or thoſe who are near his perſon. The ſovereigns of many countries reſide even out of the borders of Germany, as in the caſes of Swediſh Pomerania, the territories of the electoral houſe of Brunſwick, and the Prince of Naſſau-Orange. The inſtances, however, are much more numerous at preſent, of the moſt diſtinguiſhed ſtates of the empire having countries to govern at a diſtance, which formerly had their own particular ſovereigns, although they themſelves reſide in Germany. *There are ſome inſtances even of* eccleſiaſtical princes being in the ſame predicament; as the elector of Mentz is ſovereign of Eichsfeld and the city of Erfurt; and the elector of Cologne is in like manner in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Weſtphalia.

In the eccleſiaſtical countries, there is another particular kind of union, which is merely accidental, and frequently only during the life of the ſovereign. This is often the caſe, when ſeveral ſees or other eccleſiaſtical foundations come into the hands of the ſame perſon. It is certainly by no means conſiſtent with the original conſtitution of the church, that more than one archbiſhoprick, or biſhoprick, ſhould be held by the ſame perſon, and in other Catholic countries there has never been an inſtance of the kind; but as the ſee of Rome, by giving its ſanction, can juſtify any exception to the rules preſcribed by the eccleſiaſtical law, however great it may be, provided it apparently promotes the intereſt of the Papal court; ſo the cuſtom has been long eſtabliſhed in Germany for an archbiſhop or biſhop to be recommended to ſeveral ſees, and authorized to be elected by the Pope.* At the commencement of the 16th century, a

* During the negociations of the peace of Weſtphalia, the Proteſtants declared (February 1646) That as the archbiſhoprics, biſhopricks, prelacies, and other benefices in the empire, were founded by princes, counts, nobles, and others of the country, that their poſterity of the ſame rank ſhould be ſupported from them, it was quite contrary to the intention of the founders for one perſon to poſſeſs, as was often the caſe, two, three, four, five, and more, of theſe foundations, by which the poſterity of the founders were almoſt excluded from the moſt diſtinguiſhed of them, and they came into the poſſeſſion of others, whoſe anceſtors had contributed nothing towards them; that an ordinance ſhould be enacted, therefore, for every archbiſhop, biſhop, prelate, or canon, to be ſatisfied with his preferment: but this the Catholics would not conſent to. Moſer's Public Law of Germany, Part II. pp. 350. 358.

prince

prince of the houſe of Brandenburg, united even in his own perſon the two archbiſhoprics of Mentz and Magdeburg. There has not been an inſtance yet, however, of one perſon poſſeſſing two ſpiritual electorates;* as it would not be conſiſtent with the Germanic conſtitution, for the ſame perſon to be in the poſſeſſion of two electorates, either ſpiritual or ſecular, although there is no law exiſting on the ſubject. But the other inſtances are very frequent, ſo much ſo, that with ſome ſees it is almoſt eſtabliſhed as a cuſtom; particularly with Bamberg and Wurtsberg, and Cologne and Munſter, which have ſo repeatedly had the ſame ſovereigns, though both theſe chapters aſſert an independent right of electing biſhops for themſelves. Other inſtances of the ſame princes being in poſſeſſion of different ſees, as Mentz and Worms, Treves and Augſburg, Hildeſheim and Paderborn, are merely accidental, and not ſo frequent.

Such inſtances as theſe, *of ſeveral countries being united only during the life of* a ſecular prince, are not ſo likely to happen; but even this is not impoſſible, when a reigning prince has the adminiſtration of the government of another territory, in the quality of guardian; as the Duke of Gotha in this manner undertook the government of the duchy of Eiſenach for ſome time, in the year 1749; and the Duke of Coburg the duchy of Weimar;† and as the Biſhop of Lubeck likewiſe is at preſent, adminiſtrator of the dutchy of Oldenburg. The caſes, likewiſe, may, in ſome meaſure, be reckoned alſo, when one ſtate has a commiſſion from the emperor to ſettle the affairs of another, who is involved in debt, by which that part of the government is committed to his care which immediately concerns the public revenues and expenditure. Theſe commiſſions and guardianſhips may be entruſted to perſons who are not reigning ſovereigns, as in the inſtance of Prince Joſeph of Saxe-Hildburghauſen, who had the commiſſion for ſettling the affairs of that country; and as Prince Xavier of Saxony, by being the guardian of the preſent elector, during his minority, was adminiſtrator of that electorate. In the ſame manner, likewiſe, the government of a country may be entruſted to the widow of a prince, as the guardian of her ſons, inſtances of which have lately occurred in Weimar and Meinungen; or to younger branches of the houſe, and ſometimes to females, who are entitled alſo to ſucceed, when they happen to be the ſurviving heireſſes of houſes in which the male line is totally extinct, as in the illuſtrious inſtance of the reign of *forty years* of Maria Thereſa in the hereditary dominions of the Houſe of Auſtria.

As it is evident, from the preceding inſtances, how frequently, and by what a variety of means, a ſtate of the Germanic empire may be the ſovereign of more than one territory at once; ſo likewiſe, on the contrary, the inſtances are by no means rare of one territory having ſeveral ſovereigns. This may either happen by ſeveral perſons having joint poſſeſſion of the government of a whole country, which conſiſts of various ſeigneries; as two brothers, but a ſhort time ſince, had a *joint ſhare in the government of Saxe-Meinungen; five brothers of Solms Braunfels; and* a number of the heirs to the allodial territories of the Houſe of Limburg, princes as well as counts, had the government of thoſe places in common: or it may happen that two or more branches of a houſe, who have divided their territories among them, may reſerve the community of certain parts of them; as the ducal houſes of Saxony have a joint ſhare in the univerſity, and aulic court of judicature at Jena; and the houſes of Hanover and Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttel, jointly poſſeſs a part of the Hartz foreſt; or it may even happen that ſome ſtates who have otherwiſe no connection with each other, may have certain places, or diſtricts of land in common; as the elector of Mentz, the elector of Saxony, and the houſes of Heſſe have joint poſſeſſion of the bailiwick of Trefurt; the elector of Brandenburg, and the count of Lippe Detmold, of the city of Lippſtadt; the elector of Treves, and the Prince of Naſſau-Orange, of the city of Camberg; not to mention the *Ganerbſchaften*, as they are called, or co-heritages, to which ſeveral families may be entitled, either from the circumſtance of a conqueſt having been jointly obtained in former times, or from a ſort of foundation for noble families for ſeveral generations, as the *Ganerbſchaft* Gelnhauſen, and Staden were, and the

* When Lotharius Francis de Schönborn was elector of Mentz, Francis Lewis Count Palatine of Newburg became his coadjutor in the year 1710, and in 1716 he was elector of Treves. After the death of the former, in 1716, he became elector of Mentz, but reſigned his archbiſhoprick of Treves, and Francis George de Schönborn was elected in his ſtead.

† Pfeffer's Manual of the Hiſtory of the Germanic Empire, p. 1213.

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foundation of this kind which ſtill exiſts in the caſtle of Friedberg in Wetterauia.*

The work concludes with a view of the preſent ſtate of the population, revenues, military eſtabliſhments, &c. of the principal territories of the Germanic empire, extracted from the ſtatiſtical tables lately publiſhed at Berlin.

DR. GEDDES'S GENERAL ANSWER TO THE QUERIES, COUNSILS, AND CRITICISMS THAT HAVE BEEN COMMUNICATED TO HIM SINCE THE PUBLICATION OF HIS PROPOSALS FOR PRINTING A NEW TRANSLATION OF THE BIBLE. 4to. Faulder.

Tantis ſtudiorum alterum laboribus, et innumerabilium opitulis ſic undique provecor, ut ſingulis reſpondere non queam.

ERASM. EP. C. VELIO.

DR. Geddes's intention to publiſh a new tranſlation of the Bible is well known. His propoſals, and ſpecimen of the tranſlation, have, as he obſerves, expoſed him to the ſhafts of criticiſm; and in this publication he propoſes to give a general anſwer to the various queries, &c. put to him.

Dr. Geddes ſays,

"When, almoſt 30 years ago, I formed a deſign of tranſlating the BIBLE, I was acquainted with only two verſions of it, the *Vulgar Latin* and the Vulgar *Engliſh*: the latter had been familiar to me from my infancy; for, although my parents were Roman Catholics, they were not bigots, and the Bible was the principal book in their ſcanty library. They taught me to read it with reverence and attention; and before I had reached my eleventh year, I knew all its hiſtory by heart. My firſt prejudices, then, were in favour of the Vulgar Engliſh Verſion.

When I had acquired a ſufficient knowledge of Latin, the *Vulgate* was put into my hands, which I was afterwards obliged to ſtudy more minutely, as being the text-book of our ſchools and colleges: and now it was that I perceived a conſiderable difference between it and the Engliſh tranſlation. The latter appeared to me rugged, conſtrained, and often obſcure, where the former was ſmooth, eaſy, and intelligible. The one ſeemed to read like a *tranſlation*, the other like an *original*.—Such, at that time, was my opinion; and I confeſs that whatever I have ſince read has ſerved only to confirm me in it. Let this be called prejudice, I have no objection; but certainly it has not been ſlightly formed, nor blindly followed.

When, in 1762, I began to read the originals, I had both verſions conſtantly before me; and now I diſcovered the cauſe of the great difference between them. The chief ſtudy of the Engliſh tranſlators, I found, had been to give a ſtrictly literal verſion, at the expence of almoſt every other conſideration; while the author of the Vulgate had endeavoured to render his originals, equivalently, into ſuch Latin as was current in his age. "If ever I tranſlate the Bible, (ſaid I then) it muſt be after this manner."

Having thus given an account of his motives for undertaking this great work, he proceeds to anſwer other queries, which, as they are ſhort, we ſhall give at full length.

III. A *Roman Catholic* aſks, whether my Verſion has been approved by Bp. Talbot? in which caſe he would willingly be a ſubſcriber!

I anſwer—I never ſought the approba-

* The Burg, or caſtle of Friedberg, takes its name from an Imperial city in Wetterovia, and conſiſts of an unlimited number of noble Burgmanner or Caſtellains, of both religions. The provincial commander of the Teutonic order at Marburg is the firſt, and the commander at Frankfort on the Mayn the ſecond. Beſides theſe, any one who is deſcended from a Caſtellain only on his mother's ſide, and can prove his noble deſcent, can claim his admiſſion on the foundation. Twelve of theſe Caſtellains, of both religions, called *Regierendburgmanner*, or governing Caſtellains, are elected, from whom two *Baumeiſter*, or architects, are appointed every three years, and the *Burggraf*, or Count of the Caſtle, is elected for life, and confirmed by the emperor. The revenues of the caſtle are valued at twenty thouſand florins, of which the burggraf has ſix thouſand, beſides the rights of the chace, and other privileges. In the year 1769, this foundation was honoured with an order by the emperor, the inſignia of which hang on a blue ribbon with a black border, and have the mottos, *Virtutis auctor avuit*, and *imperatoris auſpiciis hæc imperii*. The burg or caſtle itſelf is reckoned among the immediate members of the empire.

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tion of Bishop Talbot, or of any other bishop whomsoever. A bishop's, or even a Pope's approbation, can give no intrinsic value to any work; and a work that has intrinsic value needs not their approbation. Whether mine be such or not, it is for the learned public to determine; and if their determination be favourable, not the sentence of a whole synod of bishops can reverse it. In any event, I will never walk in trammels, if I can avoid it; and least of all in mental trammels.—If *Roman* Catholics are to read no books but such as are formally approved by a bishop, their libraries will not be very numerous, nor very costly.—My querist, however, is not, I find, the only R. Catholic who is in the same disagreeable suspense: I must leave it to time to relieve them.—Mean while, I cannot help saying, with a much greater man, *Quid autem ingratius quam pro tam immensis fudoribus vigiliisque, quas tantum juvandi animo fuscepteris, et quibus nulla par gratia referri queat, rependi calumniam; idque potissimum ab iis, an quos potissimum operis utilitis sit redditura?*

IV. A *Friend* asks, whether it would not be proper to publish the Translation, successively, by itself; and the Critical Remarks afterwards, by themselves?—Perhaps it would; but I cannot well alter the terms of my first proposals, without consulting my subscribers. Two advantages would accrue from that procedure; the whole version would be sooner in the hands of the public, by at least two years; and the author would have an opportunity of making his remarks less imperfect from the intermediate observations of his critical friends. If, therefore, this proposal turns out to be generally agreeable, I shall have no objections to comply with it.

V. A *Norfolk* Gentleman wishes to know if I be the author of a late *Letter* to the Bishop of Norwich, (now of St. Asaph's) relative to his Visitation Sermon?—I should have hardly thought it possible so far to mistake my style, as to think that *Letter* written by me, if some others, beside this correspondent, had not expressed their doubt about it.—Be it known, then, that I am not the author of that Letter, nor do I know who its author is: and I take this occasion to request the public to give me henceforth no credit for any letter or writing whatsoever to which my name is not prefixed or affixed.

VI. A *Unitarian* asks, what I think of the much-disputed passage, 1 John, v. 7?—and very obligingly adds, that he has so great an idea of my candour and integrity, that to him my opinion will be equal to a decision.—Come, then, let the matter be decided.—I think the passage in question a manifest interpolation, though a very old one.—And I refer the querist, for his further satisfaction, to an excellent, but rather caustic, paper, in the Gentleman's Magazine, under the signature *Cantabrigiensis*.—Indeed, it is of very little importance whether the said text be genuine or not; but in as far as truth is concerned. For how, independently of other passages, it can make *for* or *against* a *trinity* of persons (in the sense of the schoolmen) I am not able to conceive.

VII. A Fair Correspondent sends this query: "Is your Version to be accompanied with prints?"—No, my good lady, not even with a single frontispiece!" This must be left to some future Macklin, if future Macklins arise—or rather, if my labours merit their attention.—If my book cannot have the fortune to be embellished with prints of the first rate, it shall not be disgraced by paltry ones.—There was a time, when the zeal of the *Catholic* Artists in London would have been roused on such an occasion; and would not have permitted *Mother Church* to be outrivalled by her *unbridled younger sisters*: but those times, and that zeal, I fear, are over—and *Mother Church* may even shift for herself the best she can.

VIII. Mother Church brings to my mind another double query, which was sent to me some time ago, conceived in the following *polite* terms: "Sir, are you a Roman Catholic? Sir, are you a Christian?"

To the latter of these queries, I answer positively and peremptorily: "I am a CHRISTIAN."—In order to give a just and *cautious* answer to the former, I must consult my old friend and countryman Duns Scotus. Now Duns Scotus instructs me (very properly) to make a distinction between the two terms, and to say, "A CATHOLIC, I am *absolute*, a *Roman* Catholic only *secundum quid*." If the querist understand Latin and Logic, he will be at no loss to comprehend my answer; but in case he should be a mere English scholar, and for the sake of other English readers (if there be any) who may entertain any doubts about my *catholicity*, I will make my distinction as clear and explicit as he or they can wish.—If by the epithet *Roman* be only meant, holding communion with the see of Rome, and acknowledging the primacy of its Bishop, I am certainly so far a *Roman* Catholic; but in any other sense or respect, I am no more a *Roman* than I am a *French*, *German*, or *Spanish* Catholic. If to the appellation *Catholic* any discriminating adjunctive were necessary, I would call myself a *British* Catholic: but I rather adhere to the simple declaration of an ancient martyr—"CHRISTIAN is my name, and CATHOLIC my surname."

The remains of this work is taken up with councils and criticisms, which being calculated only for one class of readers, we shall pass over.

AN ELUCIDATION OF THE ARTICLES OF IMPEACHMENT PREFERRED BY THE LAST PARLIAMENT AGAINST WARREN HASTINGS, ESQ. *late Governor-General of Bengal. By* Ralph Broome, *Esq. Captain in the Service of the East India Company on the Bengal Establishment, and Persian Translator to the Army on the Frontier Station during Part of the late War in India.* 8vo. Stockdale. 1790.

THE greater part of this work consists of letters, which have appeared in the ORACLE last winter, and of which Captain Broome now declares himself the author. In an address to the public he explains his reasons for writing thus:

"The occasion of writing the following letters was this: The author happened one day this last summer to be in company with several gentlemen in a county distant from the metropolis, where the pending trial became the subject of conversation. Curiosity, and a desire of knowing the public opinion, induced him for a time to conceal his having been in India from the knowledge of some of the company, in order that they might the more freely deliver their sentiments and opinions. He was not a little surprised to find, that though every one in company gave a most decided opinion, there was not one present who had any real information on the subject.

"Mr. Hastings, they said, had been guilty of the most atrocious barbarities, and deserved the most exemplary punishment. They inveighed with vehemence against his cruelties to the women. But what was their surprise in return, when the author of these Letters informed them, that bad as Mr. Burke had represented Mr. Hastings's conduct, they, by misunderstanding him, had made it infinitely worse: that Mr. Burke never accused Mr. Hastings of inflicting, or ordering punishment to be inflicted on the women; but that such things happened in consequence of political revolution, brought about by Mr. Hastings near two years before; and lastly, that these barbarities, as had since been proved, never happened at all. The author told them also, that Major Scott had put the public in possession of the real facts, in a pamphlet published long since. To which they replied, that they had seen Mr. Burke's speech in the newspapers, but had never seen Major Scott's observations upon it. One of the company said, it was much to be lamented, that no person had yet undertaken to write a kind of history of the facts which are laid to the charge of Mr. Hastings. He said, that he had read a great deal on the subject at separate times, but that the narratives were so broken and interrupted, and so perplexed and confused with hard names, that he found it impossible to form any clear idea upon the subject.

"The author then engaged to write a few letters for the information of the gentlemen in that neighbourhood. —He at first thought, that nine or ten sheets of paper would have contained all the outlines of the business, and information sufficient for those who were not to decide ultimately upon the question. In this opinion he was somewhat mistaken, and has been insensibly led into a greater length than he originally intended. It is, however, a very short work now, compared with any production yet published on the subject."

Of the letters themselves we shall say little; they have appeared in the public papers, and have therefore been generally read; but those who have not seen them, and are prejudiced against Mr. Hastings, would do only a piece of justice to peruse what his friends have to say in his behalf. Captain Broome, like most of the other advocates

advocates of Mr. Haſtings, does not in general deny the charges againſt him, but endeavours to juſtify him from neceſſity.

The moſt material part of the publication is the enquiry into the precedents reſpecting the continuation of impeachments after the diſſolution of the parliament. What he urges in favour of Mr. Haſtings has great weight.

His fortune muſt be reduced very conſiderably indeed, by a three years criminal proſecution. But ſuppoſing the proceeding ſhould be annulled by the diſſolution of parliament, and that the preſent Houſe of Commons ſhould be either ſo alarmed at the length of the proceedings, or ſo well ſatisfied with the innocence of the accuſed, as not to renew the proſecution, Mr. Haſtings will then ſtand in a moſt miſerable predicament. The proceedings, as far as they have gone, will appear at length among the ſtate trials. They will fill four or five volumes, and occupy nearly as much ſpace as all the ſtate trials which have hitherto been handed down to poſterity. The bitter invectives of the managers will ſtand upon record unanſwered and unrefuted. No future reader will believe it poſſible that ſo much can have been ſaid without ſome foundation to reſt upon. Thus may the character of Mr. Haſtings be handed down to poſterity with diſgrace and infamy; for thoſe very acts, which, had he had an opportunity of vindicating, he might have proved to his judges were honourable and meritorious. There is no man, however much he may hate Mr. Haſtings as an individual, but muſt allow, taking it as an abſtract queſtion, that to ſuffer everlaſting aſperſion without the means of juſtification, is an evil that calls aloud for redreſs and reformation. There are no bodies of people upon earth that have remonſtrated and complained more loudly of acts of injuſtice than the Britiſh Houſe of Commons has frequently done to the monarch on his throne; conſequently, no body of people upon earth ought to be more circumſpect and careful, leſt they oppreſs thoſe they are bound by duty to protect. It is not, however, the mercy of Parliament which Mr. Haſtings implores; it is acceleration of juſtice which he aſks, and not compaſſion. Or if it is compaſſion, it is of that ſort which the Lords have frequently ſhewn to members of their own Houſe, when under an impeachment by the Commons—I mean the frequent reminding of the accuſers of the evils of delay, and expediting the buſineſs as much as the cuſtom and uſage of parliament would permit.

We cannot help concluding with our author, that as the caſe now ſtands, it will be beſt for the public the proceedings ſhould reſt where they are; however guilty, or however innocent Mr. Haſtings may be, the event of his trial has ſhewn the *utter impoſſibility* of bringing to juſtice a perſon guilty of crimes committed at ſo great a diſtance from the mother-country.

THE DENIAL; OR, THE HAPPY RETREAT. *A Novel.* By the *Rev.* James Thomſon. 3 Vol. 9s. Sewell.

NOVEL writing is a ſpecies of literature that is now become almoſt deſpicable, from the ſwarms of trifling, ridiculous and immoral ones, that are continually iſſuing from the prolific preſs, to the benefit of none but their authors, publiſhers, and the keepers of circulating libraries.

It is our opinion, grounded on experience, that the great increaſe of this manufacture is of conſiderable injury to the intereſts of literature in general, as it tends to enervate genius, and deſtroy all taſte for rational and ſcientific knowledge. Real, ſolid, nouriſhing food will not be reliſhing to the mind enamoured with the trifles and puff paſte of novels and romances.

Sometimes, indeed, we finiſh our review of a novel with pleaſure. That pleaſure is, however, rarely enjoyed by us; ſo rarely that we could almoſt wiſh never to put on our ſpectacles more for the purpoſe of opening the leaves, and critically diſſecting the parts of a new novel. Among thoſe which we have found exceptions to the general condemnation, we are extremely glad in ranking that now before us. The characters are drawn with ingenuity and judgment, and ſupported with conſiſteney. They are alſo well contraſted, and ſhew that the author is well acquainted with human nature. The language and

ſentiments are far ſuperior to what we generally find in works of this nature.

Though the whole narrative hinges upon the ſeverity of a father to his children, and is exceedingly well told, yet this circumſtance does not quite pleaſe us. The parental character ſhould be always drawn by moral writers in ſuch a manner as to impreſs upon the minds of the young an *amiable* attachment to the filial duties. But this objection is but a ſmall one, when the general merit of the work is conſidered. Free as we are in pointing out imperfections, we feel a much greater ſatisfaction in acknowledging literary excellence. It is with real pleaſure, therefore, that we give this novel our hearty recommendation.

A SERMON PREACHED AT SAINT GEORGE'S CHAPEL, STONEHOUSE, BEFORE THE SOCIETY OF FREE AND ACCEPTED MASONS, *on Tueſday, September* 28, 1790, *being the Day appointed for the Interment of his late Royal Highneſs the Duke of Cumberland, Grand Maſter of England. By* J. Bidlake, *Chaplain to His Royal Highneſs the Duke of Clarence.* 4to. 1s.

THIS diſcourſe is dedicated to the Duke of Clarence. Mr. Bidlake, from the circumſtance of the Duke of Cumberland's death, takes an opportunity to reaſon on the vanity of human purſuits. To give our readers an idea of the language, we ſhall extract the following paragraph.

Of the inſtability of human greatneſs we have now a melancholy and much lamented example; and thoſe who mourn from cuſtom would be wiſe with the dreſs of woe to aſſume the dignity of thought. But alas! of our tranſient ſtate we want not proofs. Every day repeats them, and every place of burial ſhews us the various dates of premature or more advanced diſſolution. Whenever we viſit thoſe ſolemn and inſtructive receptacles of mortality, we may read the wretched hiſtory of human affairs. We may hear of the ſeparation of love, of conjugal, of filial or parental affection. We may read of multitudes cut down in the bloom of youth; of multitudes ſnatched away by the hand of time in the ſtrength of manhood; but of few who live long and ſee good days. How ſoon this may be the fate of him who ſpeaks, or of thoſe who now hear, is only known to that great Creator who gave us being, and can alone recall it. But ſoon or late we muſt part with the endearments of friendſhip, or the ſoftneſs of love. Soon perhaps ſhall all that now warms the heart be cold; and all that now delights the eye ceaſe to charm.

The whole of the diſcourſe is well adapted to the occaſion.

TRAVELS TO DISCOVER THE SOURCES OF THE NILE. *By* James Bruce, *of* Kinnaird, *Eſq.* F. R. S. 5 Vol. 4to. Robinſons.

[*Concluded from Page* 298.]

IN our laſt, we left our traveller at the end of his journey, the long-ſought-for ſource of the Nile. His next object was to return to Gondar, and there procure means to reach his native country. He reached Gondar without any thing occurring worth mentioning, and then proceeded to join the army under the king, who was then proceeding againſt ſome rebels, the chiefs of whom were taken, and executed.

After this, returning again to Gondar, Mr. Bruce obtained leave from the king to depart, but he firſt compelled him to ſwear that he would return with as many of his brethren and family as poſſible. The impoſſibility of performing this oath will, Mr. Bruce hopes, extinguiſh the ſin of breaking it.

Some of the enſuing chapters are taken up with giving an account of the war, the narrative of which is tedious and unintereſting.

On the 26th of December, 1771, Mr. Bruce left Gondar, and reached Tcherkin, where he met many of his old acquaintances: here Mr. Bruce was entertained with the hunting of the

the elephant, a deſcription of which we ſhall inſert in future.

Leaving Tcherkin, he proceeded to Sancaha, an old frontier town of Abyſſinia, and thence to Raſhio, in great haſte, the *Samoom*, or hot wind, which blows there, having ſtruck them, and, of the little company, all fell ſick but Mr. Bruce.

We ſet out (ſays he) from the villages of the Nuba, intending to arrive at Balboch, where is the ferry over the Nile; but we had ſcarcely advanced two miles into the plain when we were incloſed by a violent whirlwind, or, what is called at ſea, the water-ſpout. The plain was red earth, which had been plentifully moiſtened by a ſhower in the night-time. The unfortunate camel that had been taken by the Cohala ſeemed to be in the center of its vortex. It was lifted up and thrown down at a conſiderable diſtance, and ſeveral of its ribs broken. Although, as far as I could gueſs, he was not near the center, it whirled him off his feet, and threw him down upon his face, ſo as to make his noſe guſh out with blood. Two of the ſervants likewiſe had the ſame fate: it plaſtered them all over with mud, almoſt as ſmoothly as could have been done with a trowel. It took away my ſenſe and breathing for an inſtant, and my mouth and noſe was full of mud when I recovered. I gueſs the ſphere of its action to be about 200 feet. It demoliſhed one half of a ſmall hut, as if it had been cut through with a knife, and diſperſed the materials all over the plain, leaving the other half ſtanding.

As ſoon as we recovered ourſelves, we took refuge in a village, from fear only, for we ſaw no veſtige of any other whirlwind. It involved a great quantity of rain, which the Nuba of the villages told us was very fortunate, as it portended good luck to us, and a proſperous journey; for they ſaid, that, had duſt and ſand ariſen with the whirlwind, in the ſame proportion it would have done had not the earth been moiſtened, we ſhould all have been ſuffocated: and they cautioned us, by ſaying that tempeſts were very frequent in the beginning and end of the rainy ſeaſon, and whenever we ſhould ſee any one of them coming, to fall down upon our faces, keeping our lips cloſe to the ground, and ſo let it paſs; and thus it would neither have power to carry us off our feet, nor ſuffocate us, which was the ordinary caſe.

Our kind landlord, the Nuba, gave us a hearty welcome, and helped us firſt to waſh our cloaths and then to dry them. When I was ſtripped naked, they ſaw the blood running from my noſe, and ſaid they could not have thought one ſo white as I was could have been capable of bleeding. They gave us a piece of roaſted hog, which we ate, (except Iſmael and the Mahometans) very much to the ſatisfaction of the Nuba. On the other hand, as our camel was lame, we ordered one of our Mahometan ſervants to kill it, and take as much of it as would ſerve themſelves that night; we alſo provided againſt wanting ourſelves the next day: the reſt we gave among our new-acquired acquaintance, the Nuba of the village, who did not fail to make a feaſt upon it for ſeveral days after; and in recompence for our liberality, they provided us with a large jar of bonza, not very good, indeed, but better than the well water. This I repaid by tobacco, beads, pepper, and ſtibium, which I ſaw plainly was more than they expected. Although we had been a good deal ſurprized at the ſudden and violent effects of the whirlwind of that day, and ſeverely felt the bruiſes it had occaſioned, yet we paſſed a very ſocial and agreeable evening. I had ſeldom in my life, upon a journey, paſſed a more comfortable night. I had a very neat, clean hut, entirely to myſelf, and a Greek ſervant that ſat near me. Some of the Nuba watched for us all night, and took care of our beaſts and baggage. They ſung and replied to one another alternately, in notes full of pleaſant melody, till I fell faſt aſleep, involuntarily, and with regret, for, though bruiſed, we were not fatigued, but rather diſcouraged, having gone no further than two miles that day.

The landlord of the hut where I was aſleep, having prepared for our ſafety and that of our baggage, thought himſelf bound in duty to go and give immediate information to the prime miniſter of the unexpected gueſts that then occupied his houſe. He found Adelan at ſupper, but was immediately admitted, and a variety of queſtions aſked him, which he anſwered fully. He deſcribed our colour, our number, the unuſual ſize and number of our fire-arms, the poorneſs of our attire, and above all, our great cheerfulneſs, quietneſs, and affability, our being contented with eating any thing, and in particular mentioned the hog's fleſh. One man then preſent, teſtifying his abhorrence to this, Adelan ſaid of me to our landlord, "Why, he is a ſoldier and a kafr, like "yourſelf: a ſoldier and a kafr, when "travelling in a ſtrange country, ſhould "eat any thing, and ſo does every other "man that is wiſe. Has he not a ſervant "of mine with him?" He anſwered, "Yes, and a ſervant of the king too; "but he has left them, and gone forward "to Sennar."—"Go you with them," ſays he, "and ſtay with them at Balboch,

"till

"till I have time to ſend for them to "town."

He had returned from Aira long before we aroſe, and told us the converſation, which was great comfort to us all; for we were not much pleaſed with the king's ſervant going before, as we had every reaſon to think he was diſaffected towards us.

On the 29th, Mr. Bruce entered Senaar. Here he was detained ſome time, and requeſted by the king to viſit his wives, who were ill.

I was admitted into a large, ſquare apartment, very ill lighted, in which were about fifty women, all perfectly black, without any covering but a very narrow piece of cotton rag about their waiſt. While I was muſing whether or not theſe might all be queens, or whether there was any queen among them, one of them took me by the hand, and led me rudely enough into another apartment. This was much better lighted than the firſt. Upon a large bench, or ſofa, covered with blue Surat cloth, ſat three perſons, cloathed, from the neck to the feet, with blue cotton ſhirts.

One of theſe, who, I found, was the favourite, was about ſix feet high, and corpulent beyond all proportion. She ſeemed to me, next to the elephant and rhinoceros, to be the largeſt living creature I had met with. Her features were perfectly like thoſe of the negro; a ring of gold paſſed through her under lip, and weighed it down, till, like a flap, it covered her chin, and left her teeth bare, which were very ſmall and fine. The inſide of her lip ſhe had made black with antimony. Her ears reached down to her ſhoulders, and had the appearance of wings: ſhe had on each of them a large ring of gold, ſomewhat ſmaller than a man's little finger, and about five inches in diameter. The weight of theſe had drawn down the hole where her ear was pierced, ſo much that three fingers might eaſily paſs above the ring. She had a gold necklace, like what we uſed to call Eſclavage, of ſeveral rows, one below another; to which were hung rows of ſequins, pierced. She had on her ancles two manacles of gold, larger than any I had ever ſeen upon the feet of felons, with which I could not conceive it was poſſible for her to walk; but afterwards I found they were hollow. The others were dreſſed pretty much in the ſame manner; only there was one that had chains which came from her ears to the outſide of each noſtril, where they were faſtened: there was alſo a ring put through the griſtle of her noſe, and which hung down to the opening of her mouth. It had altogether ſomething of the appearance of a horſe's bridle. Upon my coming near them, the eldeſt put her hand to her mouth, and kiſſed it, ſaying, at the ſame time, in very vulgar Arabic, "Kifnaleek howa-"ja?" (How do you do, merchant?) I never in my life was more pleaſed with diſtant ſalutations than at this time. I anſwered, "Peace be among you!" I "am a phyſician, and not a merchant."

Mr. Bruce here omits to enumerate the multitude of their complaints; being a lady's phyſician, he conſiders diſcretion and ſilence as his firſt duties.

Here Mr. Bruce met with many diſagreeable circumſtances, which he happily got through, and at length proceeded on his journey. A ſignal occurrence happened on the 14th of October.

We were at once ſurpriſed and terrified by a ſight ſurely one of the moſt magnificent in the world. In that vaſt expanſe of deſert, from W. and to N.W. of us, we ſaw a number of prodigious pillars of ſand, at different diſtances, at times moving with great celerity, at others ſtalking on with a majeſtic ſlowneſs; at intervals we thought they were coming in a very few minutes to overwhelm us; and ſmall quantities of ſand did actually more than once reach us. Again they would retreat ſo as to be almoſt out of ſight, their tops reaching to the very clouds. There the tops often ſeparated from the bodies; and theſe, once diſjoined, diſperſed in the air, and did not appear more. Sometimes they were broken near the middle, as if ſtruck with a large cannon ſhot. About noon they began to advance with conſiderable ſwiftneſs upon us, the wind being very ſtrong at N. Eleven of them ranged along aſide of us, about the diſtance of three miles. The greateſt diameter of the largeſt appeared to me, at that diſtance, as if it would meaſure ten feet. We retired from them, with a wind at S. E. leaving an impreſſion upon my mind to which I can give no name, though ſurely one ingredient in it was fear, with a conſiderable deal of wonder and aſtoniſhment. It was in vain to think of flying; the ſwifteſt horſe, or faſteſt ſailing ſhip, could be of no uſe to carry us out of this danger, and the full perſuaſion of this rivetted me as if to the ſpot where I ſtood, and I let the camels gain on me ſo much in this ſtate of ſurpriſe, that it was with ſome difficulty I could overtake them.

From

From this day ſubordination, though not entirely ceaſed, was faſt on the decline: all was diſcontent, murmuring, and fear. Our water was greatly diminiſhed, and that terrible death by thirſt began to ſtare us in the face, and this was owing in a great meaſure to our own imprudence. Ishmael, who had been left centinel over the ſkins of water, had ſlept ſo ſoundly, that he had given an opportunity to a Tucorory to open one of the ſkins that had not been touched, and ſerve himſelf out of it at his own diſcretion. I ſuppoſed, that hearing ſomebody ſtir, and fearing detection, he had withdrawn himſelf as ſpeedily as poſſible, without taking time to tie the mouth of the girba, which we found in the morning with ſcarce a quart of water in it.

The phenomenon of the ſimoom, unexpected by us, though foreſeen by Idriſi, caſted us all to relapſe into the greateſt deſpondency. It ſtill continued to blow, ſo as to exhauſt us entirely, though the blaſt was ſo weak as ſcarcely would have raiſed a leaf from the ground. At twenty minutes before five the ſimoom ceaſed, and a comfortable and cooling breeze came by ſtarts from the north, blowing five or ſix minutes at a time, and then falling calm.

That deſert, which did not afford inhabitants for the aſſiſtance or relief of travellers, had greatly more than ſufficient for deſtroying them. Large tribes of Arabs, two or three thouſand, encamped together, were cantoned, as it were, in different places of this deſert, where there was water enough to ſerve their numerous herds of cattle; and theſe, as their occaſion required, traverſed in parties all that wide expanſe of ſolitude, from the mountains near the Red Sea eaſt to the banks of the Nile on the weſt, according as their ſeveral deſigns or neceſſities required. Theſe were Jaheleen Arabs, thoſe cruel, barbarous fanatics, that deliberately ſhed ſo much blood during the time they were eſtabliſhing the Mahometan religion. If it had been our lot to fall among theſe people, and it was next to a certainty that we were at that very inſtant ſurrounded by them, death was certain, and our only comfort was, that we could die but once, and that to die like men was in our own option. Indeed, without conſidering the bloody character which theſe wretches naturally bear, there could be no reaſon for letting us live. We could be of no ſervice to them as ſlaves; and to have ſent us to Egypt, after having firſt rifled and deſtroyed our goods, could not be done by them but at a great expence, to which well-inclined people only could have been induced from charity, and of that laſt virtue they had not even heard the name. Our only chance then remaining was, that their number might be ſo ſmall, that by our great ſuperiority in fire-arms and in courage, we might turn the misfortune upon the aggreſſors, deprive them of their camels and means of carrying water, and leave them ſcattered in the deſert to that death, which either of them, without an alternative, muſt ſuffer. However, we were lucky enough not to meet with any of thoſe barbarians.

On the 22d our camels were reduced to five, and it did not ſeem that theſe were capable of continuing their journey much longer. In that caſe no remedy remained, but that each man ſhould carry his own water and proviſions. Now, as no man could carry the water he ſhould uſe between well and well, it was more than probable that diſtance would be doubled by ſome of the wells being found dry; and if that was not the caſe, yet, as it was impoſſible for a man to carry his proviſions, who could not walk without any burthen at all, our ſituation ſeemed to be moſt deſperate.

On the 27th, at half paſt five in the morning, we attempted to raiſe our camels by every method which we could deviſe, but all in vain, only one of them could get upon his legs, and that one did not ſtand two minutes till he kneeled down, and could never be raiſed afterwards. Every way we turned ourſelves death now ſtared us in the face. We had neither time nor ſtrength to waſte, nor proviſions to ſupport us. We then took the ſmall ſkins that had contained our water, and filled them as far as we thought a man could carry them with eaſe: but, after all theſe ſhifts, there was not enough to ſerve us three days, at which I had eſtimated their journey to Syene, which ſtill however was uncertain. Finding, therefore, the camels would not riſe, we killed two of them, and took ſo much fleſh as might ſerve for the deficiency of bread, and, from the ſtomach of each of the camels, got about four gallons of water. The ſmall remains of our miſerable ſtock of black bread and dirty water, the only ſupport we had hitherto lived on amidſt the burning ſands, and our ſpirits likewiſe were exhauſted by an uncertainty of our journey's end.

We were ſurrounded among thoſe terrible and unuſual phenomena of nature, which Providence in mercy to the weakneſs of his creatures has concealed far from their ſight, in deſerts almoſt inacceſſible to them. Nothing but death was before our eyes; all my papers, quadrant, teleſcopes, and timekeeper, were now to be abandoned to the rude and ignorant hands of robbers, or to be buried in the ſands. However

ever, on the 29th, to our inexpreſſible joy, we ſaw the palm trees at Aſſouan, and a quarter before ten arrived in a grove of palm trees, on the north of that city.

We were not long arrived before we received from the Aga about fifty loaves of fine wheat bread, and ſeveral large diſhes of dreſt meat; but the ſmell of theſe laſt no ſooner reached me than I fainted upon the floor. I made ſeveral trials afterwards, with no better ſucceſs, for the firſt two days, nor could I reconcile myſelf to any ſort of food but toaſted bread and coffee. My ſervants had none of theſe qualms, for they partook largely and greedily of the Aga's bounty.

I was obliged to keep my room five or ſix days after my arrival; but, as ſoon as I got better, I and my ſervants ſet out on dromedaries, in order to recover my baggage. The Aga had ſent four ſervants belonging to his ſtables to accompany us, active, lively, and good-humoured fellows. About twelve o'clock we got into a valley, and hid ourſelves in the loweſt part of it, under a bank, for the night was exceeding cold: I was afraid that we had paſſed my baggage in the dark, as none of us were perfectly ſure of the place; but as ſoon as light came, we recovered our tract as freſh and entire as when we made it. After having gone about half an hour in our former footſteps, we had the unſpeakable ſatisfaction to find the quadrant and whole baggage, and by them the bodies of our ſlaughtered camels, a ſmall part of one of them having been torn by the haddays, or kite.

Mr. Bruce, after having received a very kind reception at this place, on the 11th of December ſet out for Cairo, where he arrived on the 10th of January, 1773. After ſome ſtay there, he proceeded to Alexandria, where he arrived without any thing material occurring. At length, our traveller happily reached Marſeilles, where he finiſhes the account of his travels.

TOUR OF THE ISLE OF WIGHT. *The Drawings taken and engraved by* J. Haſſell. 2 Vol. 8vo. Hookham.

THIS elegant work, Mr. Hookham tells us, in his dedication to the Duke of Clarence, was undertaken "to raiſe to public notice a young and enterpriſing artiſt." The motive was meritorious, and we congratulate the publiſher on the numerous and reſpectable liſt of ſubſcribers he has obtained.

In the introduction, our traveller informs us that his principal view was to ſelect ſuch pictureſque beauties as would afford pleaſure, and we are happy to ſay he has ſucceeded to admiration, having drawn and engraved, with great taſte, a vaſt number of plates of views, truly pictureſque and romantic, which all appear in this work in aquatinta.

We ſhall accompany our traveller, in this delightful tour, as far as our limits will permit. He proceeded from London to Bagſhot, Farnham, and Alton, to Wincheſter, and thence to Southampton, from whence they made ſeveral excurſions, and then embarked for the Iſle of Wight, and landed at Cowes.

From thence they proceeded by Newport, Newtown, and Yarmouth, to Freſh-water Bay, the deſcription of which is worth inſerting.

The cliffs that form Freſh-water Bay are very high, and when you look down from them, you find a degree of terror excited in the mind. Many parts of them, unable to withſtand the conſtant ravages of the ſea, have been waſhed down. On the left hand of the bay, two large maſſes of the cliffs have been torn from the ſides, and have fallen perpendicularly into the water. In the bottom of one of theſe fragments there is a large chaſm, forming a perfect arch; the other appears to be ſtill unhurt by the depredations of the ſpray.

From this ſpot, St. Catherine's appears the moſt ſouthern boundary of the iſland; and owing to the chalky cliffs which are about half way up its ſide on a platform of green, is frequently taken for ſome ancient caſtle. The ſhore towards it is rocky, and the cliffs exceedingly ſteep, with ſmall tufts of graſs growing on their ſides.

But when we viewed the cave of Freſh-water, we were loſt in wonder at the direful effects of the raging foam. Theſe cliffs meaſure, from the ſurface of the ſea, at low water, to their top, near ſix hundred feet. The cave is a natural cavity in the bottom of the rocks, forming two arches. Thoſe who viſit it can only enter at low water. The inſides of the arches

arches are overgrown with moſs and weeds, and ſerve as a fine contraſt to the ſea and cliffs. Several pieces of rock, which have fallen from the aſcents, block up the paſſage into the cave, at half tide. Among theſe, one in particular, much larger than the reſt, riſes ſome feet above high-water mark; the form of which I have particularly ſketched, and it accompanies the annexed view of this romantic ſpot.

Stakes are faſtened to the rocks, and others are placed on the ſhore, to which cords are fixed, that, paſſing from ſtem to ſtern of the boats belonging to the place, prevent them from being beaten to pieces by the ſurf, or carried to ſea when the wind blows hard. The bottom is a fine ſand, and from the healthy ſituation of the ſpot, would be an excellent place to eſtabliſh a bathing machine; but there being no houſes near, a conſiderable objection may ariſe from that circumſtance.

On this ſhore, the naturaliſt will find numerous attractions for his ſcientific reſearches. A variety of foſſils are impregnated with the rocky ſubſtance of the cliffs, together with native ſpars: copperas ſtones are frequently thrown by the tide on the beach; and pieces of iron ore, in its primitive ſtate, are ſometimes ſtrewed along the ſhore. Veins of rocks, ſhooting from the cliffs, run to a length that cannot be aſcertained, into the ſea. At a diſtance, they appear like water-pipes; and, on examination, are found to conſiſt in the middle of a vein of black rock, covered with an incruſtration of iron. The ſhape of theſe veins is ſingular, but very regular, and pointed; they dart into the ſea among the other rocks which form the entrance of the cave.

Several cavities appeared to be in the rocks, as we viewed them towards the Needles, but none of them led to a ſubterraneous paſſage of any length. There are three or four at the bottom of the range, called Main-Bench, but none equal to Freſhwater Cave.

Allum Bay, in its neighbourhood, alſo, well deſerves a deſcription.

The mountainous cliffs that form Allum Bay are terrific in the extreme; a huge angle of rock, ſhelving over your head, is the conſtant accompaniment of the heights; and many of them are near ſeven hundred feet from the ſurface of the ſea, at low water.

In theſe rocks the progreſſive operations of Nature, in their formation, are eaſily diſcernible. We found them to be compoſed of a regular gradation of ſubſtances, from a watery clay to a perfect and ſubſtantial petrifaction. The winter blaſts, and inceſſant ravages of the ſea, frequently hurl large tufts of earth from the ſtupendous heights to the ſtrand beneath; and theſe, lying there immoveable, gather from the undulations of the waves ſmall ſhells, foſſils, and pieces of flint; till, hardened by time and the petrifying quality of the water, they become, at length, a perfect ſubſtance.

We broke ſeveral large clumps, which had undergone this tranſmutation, and found that they had attracted every marine production. In their primary ſtate, they appeared to have been chiefly clay, without any durability. Their ſecond ſtate was, when the water had thrown its floating weeds round their ſides, and had juſt begun to attract the foſſil particles and pieces of broken ſhells, which, entangling in the moſs and ſegments, there remained, and contributed to their growing ſtrength. In their third progreſſion, we found that flint and ſpar had forced their way into their centre, and cemented the earth together, till, in the courſe of time, the water had petrified, and clothed them with copperas ſtones and iron ore, for their outward coat. Their fourth and laſt ſtage was, where, the waves having waſhed them every tide, they plainly exhibited, on their outward appearance, all the foregoing ſubſtances entirely converted to hard ſolid rock. The minuteneſs with which we examined theſe ſtones left us not the leaſt room to doubt but that ſalt water is poſſeſſed of the power to petrify, in a ſeries of time, the ſofteſt and moſt diſſoluble aſſemblage of earths.

The compoſitions of the ſoil which form theſe ſtupendous heights are of the greateſt variety we ever met with. The bottom is a hard mixture of flint and chalk, whoſe durability is able to encounter any attacks but the ocean's fury. The next vein is a black ſoftiſh mud, or watery clay, over which is an ochre of a bright caſt. Here the ſand-pits take their riſe, whoſe ſtratum, meaſuring ten feet in depth, is ſituated on the hard, plain floor of ochre before mentioned, having above it another vein of much the ſame quality. Over theſe, we obſerved a variety of coloured clays and earths, ſome of which were of a perfect pink and green hue, with the interpoſition of chalk, flint, and mold, without diſtinction. In ſhort, I ſcarcely think that any part of the kingdom produces, in ſo ſmall a compaſs, ſuch a mixture of ſoils.

The workmen are ſeldom able to continue working at the ſand-pits longer than the month of October; ſometimes not ſo long. In the winter, the ſea, agitated by the violent ſouth-weſt winds, which then generally blow, breaks into the pits, and undermining the other heights, bring

down the whole force of the mountain. When theſe craſhes happen, they may be diſtinctly heard at the village of Freſhwater, though two miles diſtant.

Proceeding by Aſton, Brook, and Motteiſton, to Brixton, our traveller met with many places worth notice. But his deſcription of Steep Hill, which is beautiful and picturesque, we cannot omit.

The great hand of Nature ſeems to have judiciouſly ſelected this ſpot for exhibiting one of her grandeſt ſtrokes. The entrance to the cliff is from the road, which was apparently forced over rugged ſteeps, that would otherwiſe have been impaſſable. A grand burſt broke on our left, its heights pleaſingly variegated by clinging ſhrubs. On the oppoſite ſide of the road lay a huge maſs of rock that had fallen from ſome overloaded eminence, and which ſerved as a counterpart in the fore-ground. Many others obſtructed the labour of the huſbandman, and contributed to enrich the ſubject.

A ray of light crept imperceptibly on the rocks to our left.—The effect was ſoft, but not equal to what a ſtronger light would have produced. Tranſits of light and ſhade are continually ſtraying over theſe heights, which, when caught by the eye, ſudden as the effect is, cannot fail to impreſs the mind with ideas of grandeur; and though the pencil might not be able to touch theſe tranſitions, the mind is not the leſs convinced of their efficacy.

For nobleneſs of fore-grounds, I am of opinion, this ſpot is not to be exceeded, if equalled, in England. The rocks, in general, are finely tinted, and lie in maſſes, extremely large; nor does the foliage fall ſhort of its other beauties. In this part, nurtured by the ſoutherly winds, vegetation is moſt luxuriant. A vernal-green aſh, ſpreading its branches to the way-worn road, is often ſeen entwining its charms with the ſtately oak, each adding grace to the other's grandeur.

The vegetative effect which the ſoutherly wind has on the trees, ſhrubs, and plants of this iſland, is worthy of remark. Long before any of them arrive at maturity, through the prevalence of the wind from this point, they all incline towards the north, nodding their ſtately heads, as if they ſet the chilling blaſts of Boreas at defiance. In the valleys, where they are ſheltered, by the ſurrounding hills, from every pernicious blaſt, they thrive with an aſtoniſhing degree of luxuriance. This obſervation may ſeem to favour of exaggeration; but ſo far from it, that no deſcription it is in the power of my pen to give, can come up to the picturesque beauties theſe ſpots afford, or convey an adequate idea of the rapturous hours I have paſſed in contemplating them.

The road to St. Lawrence is through the ſame myſterious track of rocks; but it is kept in ſuch good repair, that a carriage may paſs with great ſafety. Except here and there a ſmall clump of trees, with a homely farm ſheltering itſelf in them, nothing further, worth attention, ſtrikes the traveller till you approach that village.

The extenſion from the cliffs to the ſea ſhore, is here above half a mile broad, and poſſeſſed, if poſſible, of far more grandeur than thoſe we had already paſſed. Several huts ſkirted the road; but we did not obſerve a houſe of any ſize or conſideration near it. The church of St. Lawrence is, perhaps, the ſmalleſt at preſent ſtanding in any of the dioceſes of England; with a ſtick of a moderate length you may reach to nearly two-thirds its height, at the weſt gable end. From the ſize of the pariſh, the uſual congregation cannot conſiſt of more than twenty people, and even thoſe muſt ſit very cloſe, I ſhould imagine, to find room.

Having frequently heard of a waterfall at this place, we had pleaſed ourſelves with the hope of ſeeing a grand diſplay of Nature; but were not a little ſurprized to find it nothing more than the water of a ſpring in the village babbling over a few ſtones. It is almoſt too inconſiderable to be noticed.

As ſoon as we had viewed this celebrated waterfall, we returned to the road, and took a view of the village, which is ſmall and ſtraggling. The road from Whitwell enters the cliffs here, and joins the other road in the village.—Great pains appear to have been taken to render it paſſable; nor have theſe pains been unattended with ſucceſs; it exceeds the moſt ſanguine expectations that could have been formed of it, when firſt undertaken.

There are many things in nature which not only appear incomprehenſible to a caſual obſerver, but which cannot always be accounted for by the naturaliſt. Of this we met with an inſtance here. We could not help ſurveying, with a wonder bordering on aſtoniſhment, the ſheep that had got over the edges of the craggy precipices, from the downs they grazed on, and lay in the hollows of the rocks, in order to ſhelter themſelves from the heat; we even obſerved their bleating young ones carefully to deſcend, and reach their dams in ſafety.

POETRY.

POETRY.

ADDRESS TO VENUS.

(See Lucretius De Rerum Naturâ, B. 1.)

PARENT of mighty Rome! Immortal Queen!
Delight of gods and men! whoſe genial power,
Beneath the ſlow-revolving orbs of heaven,
The navigable ſea and fruitful earth
Pervading ſoft, with being fills the whole;
For ev'ry creature, with exiſtence pleas'd,
Viſits, through thee, the threſhold of the ſun.

Goddeſs! at thy approach the boiſt'rous winds
Are huſh'd; for thee the variegated earth
Puts forth her ſweeteſt flowers; the clouds diſperſe;
Old Ocean ſmiles ſerene, and fair diſclos'd
Th' etherial concave ſheds a purer ray.
Soon as the vernal ſun begins to glow,
And zephyr's genial breath renews the year,
Firſt the gay birds perceive thy influence bland,
And yield their ſouls to thee; the ſavage kind
Bound o'er the joyful meads, or ſtem the ſtream:
Till through each hill and valley, grove and plain,
Rivers and ſeas, the ſoft contagion ſpreads.
All hail thee Queen of Love; all feel thy pow'r,
And, pleas'd, tranſmit their race from age to age.

Since univerſal nature owns thy ſway,
Since without thee the ſhores of heav'nly light
Were deſolate and drear, without thee joy
Or lovelineſs were none—Goddeſs ſupreme,
Suppliant to thee I bow; ſmit with the dart
By thee prepar'd: oh! teach me how to ſoothe
Lucinda's poliſh'd ear and reach her heart:
Lucinda, charming maid! thy favourite care,
And fram'd by thee in all things to excel,
Firſt of her kind on earth, as thou in heav'n.

Iſlington, Sept 1, 1790.

CELADON's GIFT.

SOFTLY ſwell, ye wanton zephyrs,
Nor too rudely kiſs yon flow'r,
For in perfection I'll convey it
To my lov'd Amelia's bow'r.

Gently paſs, induſtrious rover,
Nor from thence extract a ſweet,
For I would bear it, unpolluted,
To Amelia's fair retreat.

Kindly negligent—avoid it,
Others ſurely may be found,
Which, though in my eſteem inferior,
May with equal charms abound.

Then no longer hover near it,
But quickly to the woodbine ſhade;
There a thouſand odours call thee;
O do not rob my lovely maid!

Leſs intently, radiant Phœbus,
On my flow'ret fix thine eye;
Should'ſt thou rage fiercer, then thy luſtre
Will inflame my jealouſy.

Mildly, modeſtly ſurvey it;
Too fervid is thy ardent gaze;
Thou would'ſt not with thy warmth deſpoil it,
Or blaſt its beauties with thy rays.

Ah! no; but ſtill thy influ'nce ſhedding,
Dry that pearly drop of dew;
For whilſt it bears that mark of ſorrow,
'Tis not, Amelia, fit for you.

Propitious prove the happy moment
Which I now with rapture ſeize,
To bear thee to Amelia's bow'r,
Where gently ſhe reclines at eaſe.

Accept,

Accept, ſweet maid, this ſimple preſent,
Deny it not thy tender care;
For ſure 'tis worthy thy protection,
Since, like thee, it's pure and fair.

ARIETTE.

AMELIA's ACCEPTANCE OF CELADON's GIFT.

BEAUTEOUS flow'ret, in my boſom
Gently hide thy ſlender ſtem,
From my kiſſes gather nurture,
Nor wither till unfed by them.

Sweetly grace thy habitation,
Ambroſial perfumes yet impart;
But don't betray the ſoft emotion
Which thou wilt witneſs in my heart.

Let not others know the paſſion
Which from thee I can't conceal,
Nor e'er expoſe the tender weakneſs
Which my frequent ſighs reveal.

But ever blooming, ever thriving,
And ſtill ſuperior to decay,
Let thy charms evince thy miſtreſs
Cheerful, eaſy, tranquil, gay.

Altho' deceit I ſcorn to harbour
And hypocriſy deſpiſe,
It is the world's pernicious maxim
Honeſt nature to diſguiſe.

Let Celadon alone imagine
All that paſſes in my breaſt,
Let him alone ſuſpect the reaſon
Why thou thus fondly art careſs'd.

To him, with glowing bluſh, diſcover
Every failing you perceive;
Tell how my boſom ſwells with ſorrow,
And woes it, pitying, can't relieve.

To him diſcloſe each thought, ſenſation,
All its various paſſions prove;
Say that fair virtue is its idol,
Its deepeſt, groſſeſt ſtain is love.

Yes, beauteous flow'ret, ſtill with candour
Search and try my artleſs mind,
Nor ſcruple with thy thorn to wound it,
Whene'er a greater crime you find.

ARIETTE.

SONNET.

TO TRANQUILITY.

BY W. HAMILTON REID.

TRANQUILITY, balm of the toil-worn breaſt,
Oh ſay, where now at eaſe thou ſitt'ſt reclin'd,
Fann'd by the balmy whiſpers of the wind,
Where Peace and Innocence alone's careſs'd!
Still art thou ſeen upon the mountain's brow
Ere breaks the miſt from the tranſlucent tide,
And heard blythe chanting to the delving plough?
But baneful luxury, and modern pride,
Have now the ſweets of rural life deny'd,
To ſwell the city of enormous ſize,
Where pleaſure fades upon the ſickly brow:
Ah me! what plaints for thy lov'd boſom riſe,
That never, never ſhall their wiſh obtain
Till death, undreaded, chills the breaſt of pain.

CONSTANTIA.

AN ELEGY.

WHAT tho' the tear diſtain the cheek,
And faded be the brilliant eye,
Yet pamper'd Lux'ry ſuffers Grief
To paſs its door unheeded by.

Her huſband—her protector gone,
In wild deſpair Conſtantia view;
Forlorn and friendleſs, doom'd to range,
Chill'd by the nightly-falling dew.

Nor wou'd ſhe take the meed of vice
To flaunt in meretricious dreſs;
In Virtue's path ſhe loves to tread,
Tho' clad in weeds of wretchedneſs.

I've ſeen her oft, by moon-light beam,
Reclining on the moſſy ſtone
Where her Fidelio's aſhes lie,
Indulging in ſad, plaintive moan.

"Yes, my Fidelio," then ſhe'd cry,
"Ere long ſhall I thy relics join;
"Since left, neglected by the world,
"Who ſacrifice at Folly's ſhrine.

"But

" But you, my huſband, felt for all,
" Nor ſpurn'd the mendicant away;
" Thy bleſſed ſpirit dwells above
" In the refulgent realms of day.

" On midnight balls and maſquerades
" The gay licentious crowd expend
" What might unnumber'd beings ſave
" From Penury's diſtreſsful end.

" Since feebly beats Conſtantia's pulſe,
" And languid flows the vital tide,
" Kind Heav'n, permit me here to die,
" And reſt by my Fidelio's ſide."

THE MODERN FINE LADY.

A CHARACTER DRAWN FROM REAL LIFE.

A Soft ſmile of aſſent to all that you ſay,
No meaning affix'd to a Yea or a Nay;
Th' epithet *charming* at random ſhe uſes,
And th' import of words ſhe often abuſes:
A profuſion of compliments flows from her tongue,
" *You've ſpoken divinely, divinely have* " *ſung;*"
But when you have left this incomparable dame,
With a ſneer of contempt ſhe will mention your name:
She'll riſe, and then look in her glaſs with a leer,
Pronouncing your manners were aukward and queer.
Her huſband, poor ſoul! leads a ſweet, happy life,
In a ſtate of perpetual diſcord and ſtrife:
Shou'd he dare to rejoin, ſhe falls in a ſwoon,
Or raves like a maniac, at change of the moon;
The lightning of rage then darts from her eyes,
As *Tiſiphone* waken'd by ſudden ſurprize;
Yet if a loud knock be made at the door,
Announcing Sir Ogle is come to adore,
She flies to the toilette, to varniſh her face,
And practiſe each ſoft and each languiſhing grace;
The roſes and lilies freſh bloom on her cheek,
And ſhe ſeems like a veſtal, quite modeſt and meek.
In folly Vaniſſa thus waſtes all her days,
E'er dazzled by flatt'ry, a ſlave to falſe praiſe:
Not ſuch is Prudentia—devoid of all art,
She charms and attracts each ſuſceptible heart;
Her partner ſhe loves, her children are dear,
Her manners are affable, eaſy, ſincere;
Her acquaintance and friends partake of her board,
She's eſteem'd and rever'd—nay, almoſt ador'd,
Whate'er is ſuperfluous in dreſs ſhe beſtows
In ſupplying the orphan with food and with cloaths:
In arts of detraction ſhe never was bred,
Nor to backbite or ſlander by Envy is led;
At balls and card parties ſhe ſeldom is ſeen,
Therefore ſhe's a ſtranger to vapours and ſpleen,
Which often derange *Vaniſſa's* weak brain,
When Avarice prompts her to ſeek fordid gain;
When the furrows of age ſhall have wrinkled her brow,
Neither coxcomb nor fop then will deign her a bow:
Neglected, deſpis'd, ſhe'll pine diſregarded,
By the lovers of truth for ever diſcarded.
Tho' fops may talk nonſenſe, and flatter your pride,
Believe me, the wiſe will your conduct deride:
Pauſe awhile, then, Vaniſſa, and think on your fate
In that world where perfidy cannot have weight;
Shou'd the thunder but roll, you are palid with fear;
What horrors will ſeize when the laſt trump you hear!
And conſcience awaken'd, your pangs ſhall foretel
In the regions where pride and hypocriſy dwell.

WISE BUT TOO LATE.

FORTUNE, with human folly apt to ſport,
Betray'd an honeſt ſailor once to court,
And mov'd a frolick in the prince's head
To mount him on a barb of mettled breed.
The royal gift indulg'd the ſailor's pride,
He thought it aſk'd no mighty ſkill to ride;
'Twas the firſt time, but ſeem'd a thing of courſe,
He that could ſteer a ſhip might ſteer a horſe:
So up he leaps, both fiſts the ſaddle graſp,
Both legs the horſe's belly ſtraitly claſp.
The beaſt begins to curvet, John ſticks faſt.
" Roll on," quoth he; " no fear we
" ſpring the maſt."
Touch'd with the ſpurs, his courſer forward flings,
The ſailor gores his ſides and cloſer clings;

And

And while he ſpurs him on with might and main,
Employs both hands to check the ſtraighten'd rein;
Meanwhile the gen'rous beaſt at ribs and jaws
Suffers and bleeds, but cannot gueſs the cauſe.
While inconſiſtent ſigns at once he feels,
Back'd by the *hands*, prick'd *forward* by the *heels*;
Short was the aukward ſcene; he rears, he leaps;
Shook from his ſeat, the frighted ſailor ſlips,
No eaſy fall! the ſharp, obdurate ſtones
Broke his poor head, and bruis'd his looſen'd bones
Duſty and pale, he rais'd himſelf at laſt,
Biting his lips with rage for what had paſt;
Wiſe but *too late*, it added to his pain,
To find himſelf abus'd, nor dar'd complain.

SONNET TO A SUN-FLOWER.

BY W. HAMILTON REID.

AMBITIOUS flower! to woo the ſolar light,
Think'ſt thou no tenant of the garden gay,
More charms affording to the pleaſur'd ſight,
Might hope t'enjoy the ſov'reign of the day?

Or art thou conſcious, Senſibility
From all but thee his royal breaſt bereaves,
Since when at eve no more his ſmiles we ſee,
Thy brows contracted, none beſide receives?

'Tis true that beauties of a gaudier train
May haply ſhine the pageants of an hour;
But the fine movements of the ſoul muſt reign
Beyond the ſummer-ſway of Beauty's pow'r;
And as the ſtem on which thy leaves are borne,
The gardens view, of all their luſtre ſhorn.

ODE TO THE GLOW-WORM.

BY PETER PINDAR, ESQ.

BRIGHT ſtranger, welcome to my field;
Here feed in ſafety, here thy radiance yield;
To me oh! nightly be thy ſplendor giv'n:
Oh! could a wiſh of mine the ſkies command,
How would I gem thy leaf with lib'ral hand,
With ev'ry ſweeteſt dew of heav'n!

Say, doſt thou kindly light the fairy train,
Amidſt their gambols on the ſtilly plain,
Hanging thy lamp upon the moiſten'd blade?
What lamp ſo fit, ſo pure as thine,
Amidſt the gentle elfin band to ſhine,
And chaſe the horrors of the midnight ſhade!

Oh! may no feather'd foe diſturb thy bow'r,
And with barbarian beak thy life devour:
Oh! may no ruthleſs torrent of the ſky,
O'erwhelming, force thee from thy dewy ſeat,
Nor tempeſt tear thee from thy green retreat,
And bid thee 'midſt the humming myriads die.

Queen of the inſect world, what leaves delight?
Of ſuch theſe willing hands a bower ſhall form,
To guard thee from the ruſhing rains of night,
And hide thee from the wild wing of the ſtorm.

Sweet child of ſtillneſs, 'midſt the awful calm
Of pauſing Nature thou art pleas'd to dwell,
In happy ſilence to enjoy the balm,
And ſhed thro' life a luſtre round thy cell.

How diff'rent man, the imp of noiſe and ſtrife,
Who courts the ſtorm that tears and darkens life;
Bleſt when the paſſions wild the ſoul invade!
How nobler far to bid thoſe whirlwinds ceaſe!
To taſte, like thee, the luxury of peace,
And ſhine in ſolitude and ſhade!

THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

DRURY-Lane. The return of Meſſrs. King and Palmer to this ſtage has produced full houſes. Sheridan's favourite comedy of the *School for Scandal* has, after a reſpite of three years, been revived. Mr. Kemble aſſumes Mr. Smith's character of Charles, but we cannot compliment him with being in any reſpect equal to his predeceſſor. There is a confirmed ſtiffneſs of habit in Mr. Kemble, which by no means accords with genteel comedy. King, in Lord Ogilvie in the Clandeſtine Marriage, ſtill ſtands unrivalled; and his Puff in the Critic is inimitable. The laſt piece has been performed with the original caſt of characters.

The comedy of Better Late than Never was produced on the 18th of November. The characters as under:

Saville,	*Mr. Kemble.*
Sir Charles Chouſe,	*Mr. Palmer.*
Litigamus,	*Mr. Banniſter.*
Flurry,	*Mr. Dodd.*
Grump,	*Mr. Baddeley.*
Pallet,	*Mr. R. Palmer.*
Diary,	*Miſs Pope.*
Mrs. Flurry,	*Mrs. Goodall.*
Auguſta,	*Mr. Jordan.*

The comedy commences with Saville lamenting his loſs at play, and his diſtreſs is encreaſed by a letter from Flurry, informing him, that his ward Auguſta has determined never to marry him, on account of his rakiſh diſpoſition, and this is confirmed to him immediately after by Diary, Auguſta's ſervant. On the entrance of his friend he complains of his unfortunate ſituation, that he is deſerted by his uncle Grump, and by the fair Auguſta. Soon after a new acquaintance, called the Chevalier, enters, advances him money, and takes his bond for it. This Chevalier proves to be Auguſta in diſguiſe, who, in concert with Sir Charles, had agreed to ruin him completely. In ſubſequent ſcenes ſhe wins of him large ſums, gets the deeds of his eſtate from him in the diſguiſe of a counſellor, and then, diſcovering herſelf, confeſſes it is her who has ruined him, and boaſts of it. He reprobates her conduct, until ſhe at length declares it was done to reform him, and from the tendereſt motives. Flurry being improved of this, conſents to their union. This plot is ingeniouſly interwoven with another, in which Sir Charles Chouſe carries on a deſign againſt Mrs. Flurry: they meet at Pallet, a painter's; are detected by the huſband, and reconciled by Litigamus, a proctor, and the whole concludes with the expoſure of Sir Charles, and a proof of Mrs. Flurry's innocence.

This comedy, which poſſeſſes much ſpirit, is the production of Mr. Andrews, author of Summer's Amuſement, and ſeveral other pieces. Mr. Andrews' knowledge of the ſtage has enabled him to conduct the ſtory with great regularity. The characters, although they poſſeſs little novelty, are well drawn; and the ſituations founded on real life. The ſcene at Pallet's is particularly well managed. All the performers did juſtice to their parts; Mrs. Jordan, in particular, in the various character of Auguſta: the Chevalier and the Counſellor did ample juſtice to each.

The prologue is ſaid to be the production of the Duke of Leeds. The epilogue is ſuppoſed to be by the author.

Covent-Garden. A lady of the name of Eſten has appeared here, and has already played a variety of characters. Roſalind, in As You Like it; Roxalana, in the Sultan; and Monimia, in Otway's Orphan; in each of which ſhe ſhews talents, and may make an excellent actreſs, if her friends do not ſpoil her by too much flattery. To equal Siddons and Farren too, is too much for one woman.

The opera of the Czar, which was produced laſt year, for the benefit of Mrs. Billington, has been reduced to an after-piece, and performed under the title of the *Fugitive.* It poſſeſſes ſome pleaſing ſongs, and will therefore paſs; but nothing more can be ſaid in its favour.

On the 17th of November a new comedy, called the German Baron, was performed. This comedy, we are told, is a tranſlation from the German, but by whom we are not informed. The ſtructure of the fable is craftily involved, and yet the unities are rigorouſly maintained. The tranſlator has not enlivened it; yet it is by no means deſtitute of attraction. The performers did all great juſtice to their characters.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Algiers, Auguſt 20.

A Corſair of this regency having taken a Neapolitan veſſel, near Toulon, ſome armed boats put off from that port, retook the veſſel, and carried her in againſt the will of the magiſtrate. Two Genoeſe barks having alſo, in ſight of Toulon, retaken a prize from another

another of our corſairs, which coſt the life of an Algerine, our Dey requires the French conſul here to order the two prizes to be brought back, to pay 1000 ſequins for the Algerine killed, and 500 more for every one that was wounded; and in caſe of refuſal he will give orders to his corſairs to attack every French veſſel they meet with.

Conſtantinople, Aug. 22. Some time ago Mr. Demetrio Carmalli, a citizen, and formerly an inhabitant of Amſterdam, arrived here to recover a debt from Meſſ. Arcanias, which had been due to him for theſe two years; and the Dutch Envoy ſupported him with his credit. On the 15th inſt. returning from the country-houſe of this Envoy, he was aſſaſſinated in the high-road, and received a ball in his back, and ſix in his arms; but nothing was taken from him, which proves that the aſſaſſins were no robbers.

Copenhagen, Sept. 21. The deſtination of the ſhips in the road has been changed; ſome are to go to Norway, and the reſt will remain armed till the end of next month.

Sept. 25. A Ruſſian ſquadron anchored in our road lately, conſiſting of two 64 gun ſhips, a frigate of 32 guns, and a cutter of 16, under the command of Brigadier Timacheff. It is ſuppoſed that they came to eſcort five tranſport veſſels which lie here, and to take on board ſome artillery and other ſtores, which the Ruſſian ſquadron left here in the laſt war with Sweden. Theſe veſſels have on board Baron Sprengporten, who is going with his lady to France, to endeavour to recover from the wounds he received in the laſt campaign in Finland.

On the 19th inſtant about 300 ſhips of different nations paſſed the Sound.

Berlin, Sept. 29. By the preparations making here there is certainly ſome idea of a rupture with Ruſſia; at leaſt the great activity which prevails in the works of the arſenal, and the preparations for the army, juſtify ſuch a concluſion. The army in Pomerania is raiſed to 20,000 men, and the proviſions and ammunition which were in Silefia have been tranſported to that province. We are aſſured alſo, that Baron de Goertz is gone to the Grand Vizier, to engage him not to make peace with Ruſſia, without previouſly informing his allies, Pruſſia and Holland, of his intention.

Milan, Oct. 1. Two edicts were publiſhed during the courſe of laſt month, the object of which was the ſafety and tranquillity of Lombardy, and the neighbouring eſtates. By the firſt they renew the convention made between the ſtates of Auſtria, on the one part, and thoſe of the Republic of Genoa, on the other; to arreſt reciprocally, in each of their territories, the fugitive malefactors, or thoſe whom the public ſafety requires ſhould be ſecured. By the ſecond, they have alſo renewed the convention made between the ſtates of Auſtrian Lombardy, and thoſe of Parma, Plaiſance, and Guaſtilla; to ſeize reſpectively, on the territory of each, the banditti who have eſcaped the vigilance of government, by paſſing from one country into another.

Petersburgh, Oct. 1. The rejoicings which have prevailed here for this week paſt, on account of the concluſion of the peace between Ruſſia and Sweden, have been conducted with that ſolemnity and magnificence which has ever diſtinguiſhed the reign of our ſovereign. They began on the 19th, and ended on the 28th of September.

Vienna, Oct. 4. His majeſty has ſent a letter to the ſtates of Hungary, aſſembled at Buda, to inform them, that the coronation in Hungary will take place at Preſbourg on the 15th of November at the lateſt, and that he is firmly reſolved to accept no other diploma than that of Charles the Sixth or Maria Thereſa.

Baron Leopold de Laſſolaye, who was concerned in the affair of Legiſfield for a ſum of 67,000 florins, in conſequence of an application to our monarch, underwent ſome months ago a legal examination, and is freed from every demand made on him in conſequence of that affair.

Madrid, Oct. 4. Impriſonments have become very frequent in this capital of late, and ſtrangers have more to fear than citizens. Count Segur, Commandant of Peronne, and a member of the National Aſſembly, who is here in conſequence of a law-ſuit, was lately arreſted, and conducted to one of the quarters of the invalids. The cauſe of it is attributed to a pamphlet againſt the Court of Spain, which is circulated at Paris under his name; but we think there is ſome miſtake in this matter. His landlord has been carried to the civil priſon.

Naples, Oct. 5. The eruption in Mount Veſuvius ſtill continues, but its violence is ſomewhat abated. As the ſeveral lavas which have taken their courſe down the flanks of the volcano, for three weeks paſt, have proceeded from its crater, they have ſeldom been able to reach the vineyards, and have as yet done but little damage. The aſhes have fallen in great abundance even at Naples, and muſt conſiderably affect the vintage of this year. After the dreadful eruptions of 1767 and 1779, the preſent is the moſt formidable that has happened.

Marſeilles, Oct. 6. About ten o'clock yeſterday morning, during a violent ſtorm of rain, the lightning fell many times in Marſeilles, and its environs, and has left fatal marks of its fury. The firſt burſt was upon the fort of Notre Dame de la Garde;

Garde; it calcined one of the port-holes, ſhattered to pieces a maſt on which a ſail was hoiſted as a ſignal for ſhips, and killed a ſentinel and two invalids. The ſecond ſtroke fell on the plain of St. Michael, on the houſe of M. Rivar, an eminent phyſician, who was that moment ſitting in the veſtibule with his wife. No lives were loſt by this ſtroke; but a third was more fatal. It fell upon a villa, a quarter of a league from the town, where the company conſiſted of a great many ladies, who, frightened by the dreadful appearance of the ſtorm, all crowded together with their domeſtics into one room. The lady of the houſe, in reaching to ſhut down a window, was ſtruck dead. The lightning ſtruck her head and breaſt; her riding-habit was pierced in holes like a ſieve, and her tucker, the fore-part of her ſhift, and the half of her drawers, were conſumed. Of ſome keys which ſhe had in her pocket, not the leaſt veſtige remained, though her watch was not at all affected. Some more of the company were hurt; one of them with the loſs of her ſight and hearing.

Warſaw, Oct. 9. After ſome ſtrong debates on the prolongation of the preſent Confederation, it was reſolved, in the ſeſſion of the Diet of yeſterday, that the link of the Confederation ſhall be indiſſoluble, even when another Diet is formed in the month of January. According to this reſolution the Aſſembly of the States will then be compoſed of the ſame Marſhals, and moſt of the Nuncios, who compoſe the preſent, and by that means will ſtill retain the party which enjoys the moſt influence.

The States ſtill continue their declarations on the cardinal laws, and have reſolved on the following points, 1ſt, The *Liberum Veto* at the Diet, without any limitation. 2d, The liberty of voting by Nuncios at the General Diet. 3d, The liberty of the preſs.

Letters from Jaſſy inform us, that Prince Potemkin is on his march with his whole army, to paſs the Danube at Kilia. Should the Grand Vizier oppoſe his paſſage, we may ſhortly expect to hear of an action.

Madrid, Oct. 12. The rupture between Spain and the new Emperor of Morocco is decided, and the retreat of Mr. Salmon, the Conſul-General of Spain, from his dominions, has encreaſed the animoſity of this African Prince againſt a nation friendly to his father. This retreat was effected by a ſtratagem, which has coſt the lives of thoſe Moors who were devoted to Spain. The Conſul landed ſeveral packages on the eve of his departure, which he had before planned, and gave it out that he was to come on ſhore himſelf the next day; by this ſcheme he gave an opportunity to the Spaniards, and four Moors, to come on board with great eaſe, and the Spaniſh frigate then weighed anchor. The Emperor, informed of this ſtratagem, which he calls perfidy, and incenſed by the capture of two of his corſairs, cut off the heads of his father-in-law, of one of his miniſters, and of the Pacha of Tangier, on account of their attachment to Spain; and the laſt in particular, as he ſhould have prevented the eſcape of the Conſul. He has beſides obliged all the Spaniards, among whom are ſome prieſts, to come from Mequinez and Morocco to Tangier, to be kept in ſlavery till every thing taken from him be reſtored. His corſairs have ſeized a Spaniſh fiſhing boat with eighteen men, four of whom where killed, and fourteen carried to Tetuan.

At Carthagena orders have been received to arm every veſſel in a ſtate of ſervice; at Ferrol they are employed with the ſame activity in ſheathing thoſe ſhips with copper which are to join the grand fleet.

Vienna, Oct. 12. The three miniſters to the Congreſs, the Marquis of Luccheſini, on the part of Pruſſia; Sir R. M. Keith, on the part of England: and Baron de Haeſton, on the part of Holland, are ſtill in this capital, waiting for further orders relative to their departure.

Madrid, Oct. 18. Advices have been received here, ſince thoſe of the 14th inſtant, containing further particulars of the terrible calamities produced by the earthquake, which happened at Oran, on the night of the 8th inſtant. By theſe it appears that twenty ſucceſſive ſhocks were felt at ſhort intervals. The whole city is deſtroyed, and a great part of the inhabitants and of the garriſon are buried under the ruins. Almoſt all the forts which cover that place and its diſtrict are open or deſtroyed, ſo as not to be in a ſituation to reſiſt an attack. The interior part of the garriſon is in ruins in many places, and the conſiderable number of people who were wounded, and not actually killed, by this diſaſter, remained without aſſiſtance.

Vienna, Oct. 19. A camp is forming at Cuſtrin, in the New March of Brandenburgh, upon the frontiers of Poland, which there is reaſon to think will become numerous.

Oſtend, Oct. 20. The States have iſſued a proclamation, the purport of which is, to aſſure their people that they have no intention whatever of coming to any terms with Leopold, nor will they pay any regard to the interference of any other power in their behalf, as liberty is their object, which they have no doubt, with the bleſſing of God, and the united force of the people, to obtain; and to ſhew the people their determined purpoſe, they

they have taken freſh ſteps to augment their army, which will require the immediate aid of money; and notwithſtanding the very liberal ſupplies heretofore received, they deem it the moſt equitable mode to impoſe a general impoſt.

This tax was proclaimed here yeſterday by the bellman, and the proclamation read in form at the Town-hall, by the mayor: Oſtend is to pay twenty millions of gilders, (2od. each) Bruges thirty millions, Ghent fifty millions, and ſo on—every town and village, in proportion to its conſequence, all over the States.

The Congreſs has ordered the Corporation here to erect a cap of liberty over the Town-hall, and expreſſed diſpleaſure at their refuſing the one offered by the Brabanders!

Paris, Oct. 22. The miniſters have this day voluntarily reſigned their places. We are not yet ſure whether M. Montmorin is in the number of the reſigned.

The French flag is in future to be red, blue, and white, inſtead of the white flag, which has been carried ſo many ages paſt.

Liege, Oct. 22. Meſſ. de Cheſtrel and Baſſenge, the deputies from our Third Eſtate, are juſt arrived here from Frankfort. The deputies from the other Orders are daily expected. Since their return, the people appear to be rather more ſtrengthened in their reſolution of refuſing the terms of accommodation propoſed to them; and all who are in a condition of bearing arms are preparing to maintain the cauſe of the revolution. This reſolution, however, appears to ſavour a little of deſpair, if it is true that the Court of Berlin has given the Liegois to underſtand that they have nothing left for them to do but to yield to the neceſſity of circumſtances.

Frankfort, Oct. 22. The King of Naples has been detained by an indiſpoſition, but is now better.

His Majeſty the Emperor arrived the 18th inſt. at Nuremberg, and on the 19th was expected at Ratiſbon.

Oct. 30. The Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel has at laſt manifeſted his deſire of becoming an elector, by addreſſing a memoir *to the Electoral College, requeſting their recommendation to the Emperor for his* obtaining this dignity.

The Liegois are diſpoſed to make the greateſt ſacrifices, upon condition that they are redreſſed in their grievances, and freed from their late Prince Biſhop; but his admiſſion, it is thought, will only be ſubmitted to by force of arms.

Bruſſels, November 2. On Friday morning laſt, at the hour of eleven, the town of Namur ſuffered a melancholy ſhock, by the blowing up of the powder magazine: it is ſaid that from 300 to 500 perſons periſhed; a number of houſes, and part of the barracks alſo ſuffered, according to the account which the Corporation of Namur gave Congreſs. They impute this ſad diſaſter to accident: however, the general opinion is, that it was owing to the force of Imperial gold.

Hague, Nov. 6. The miniſters of the three allied powers have done their utmoſt to perſuade the deputies from the Belgick Congreſs to agree to ſtop all further hoſtilities againſt the Auſtrian troops, but this they always avoided agreeing to; and on Sunday laſt the miniſters, in the name of their reſpective courts, gave a miniſterial anſwer to the deputies for the laſt time, telling them, "That it depended entirely upon the Belgick nation to ſee their old conſtitution reſtored upon the ſame footing it was before the late reign, together with all their eccleſiaſtical and burgher privileges, with an entire oblivion of all that had paſſed; which diſpoſition the emperor would avow by a manifeſto," which manifeſto has appeared.

Tobago, Auguſt 14. The year 1790 will be memorable in the annals of Tobago. Three earthquakes, a revolution in the ſtate, the troops in revolt, Port St. Louis burnt to aſhes, and, to cloſe the cataſtrophe, we had laſt Tueſday one of the moſt dreadful hurricanes ever remembered by even the Jamaica planters.

The preceding evening was perfectly calm, nor did it exhibit to us any ſymptoms of the approaching calamity, though the parrots deſerted the woods to windward, and, in an immenſe flock, retreated, in the duſk of the evening, to the moſt leeward extremity of the iſland.

I mention this phenomenon on account of its being quite uncommon for parrots to do ſo, and being the only preceding ſign I can recollect, though at that time I took no notice of it. At half paſt eleven at night the wind began to blow very hard from the eaſtward, and continued, with increaſing violence, until one o'clock in the morning, when it exerted its utmoſt fury

The conflict of the warring elements was now terrible; the craſh of beating and uprooted trees, the fall of houſes, the black darkneſs that prevented our ſeeing *the ſurrounding dangers, formed a ſcene* of horror and impending ruin not often to be met with.

About three o'clock it became very calm, when we had a view of the devaſtation; our mill points and arms broken, all the trees on the eſtate had their heads cut to pieces, and moſt of the great ones overturned, with their roots projected into the air, and forming a baſe of earth and ſtones, of an amazing weight, leaving vaſt hollows where they had been torn out.

Such

Such was the proſpect we beheld in the morning; when the wiſhed-for day-light appeared, the whole face of the country exhibited marks of havock and deſolation.

COUNTRY NEWS.

Canterbury, Oct. 29. Yeſterday morning, at ten o'clock, Mr. Forſter Powell, the celebrated pedeſtrian, ſet off from the Dolphin Inn, in this city, to walk to St. George's church, Southwark, and back again, which he had engaged to perform in 24 hours, for a wager of 60 guineas. At ten o'clock this morning Mr. Powell reached Canterbury within two miles, and conſequently loſt his wager. His failure was occaſioned by miſtaking the road through the darkneſs of the night, and going round by Greenwich, where he fell down ſeveral times. He was brought the remainder of the way in a carriage, very much exhauſted.

Oct. 31. The ſpecial committee of magiſtrates for the county of Eſſex aſſembled at the Black Boy Inn, at Chelmsford, to take into conſideration the further ſteps neceſſary for the defence of the ſaid county againſt the impoſition of the Right Hon. Lord Chief Juſtice Loughborough's fine on the inhabitants thereof.

The clerk of the peace reported that he had obtained a writ of *Certiorari* from the court of exchequer, directing the record of the proceedings of the ſaid chief juſtice to be brought up into that court: he further ſtated, that he had ſerved the clerk of the aſſize, for the home circuit, with due notice to make a return of the ſaid writ of *Certiorari* to the court of exchequer.

It was then moved, and unanimouſly agreed to, that ſhould the ſaid clerk of aſſize not make a return of the ſaid writ on or before the 13th of November, that the clerk of the peace be impowered to move the court of exchequer for a mandatory order to him to make the ſaid return.

The committee then adjourned to Friday the 19th of November.

Lewes, Nov. 1. A very ſingular and monſtrous birth occurred, one day laſt week, at Folkington, near Lewes. The wife of a labouring man there was delivered of twin-females, whoſe bodies, from the navel to the breaſt, are united, and, as it were, incorporated, but in every other reſpect they are diſtinct and perfect, both above and below the united parts. The arms are folded round the necks of each other, as if in a cloſe embrace. The woman had gone her full time, and the birth was rather beyond the ordinary ſize. No ſymptoms of life were diſcovered. Mr. Skinner, of Aliſtan, who with great difficulty delivered the poor woman of her extraordinary fœtus, has preſerved it in ſpirits.

Cambridge, Nov 4. The prize of books (value 12 guineas) annually adjudicated in this univerſity to the beſt Engliſh diſſertations on the character and memory of King William the Third, and on the glorious Revolution, is this year obtained by Dr. Tweddell; who, in conſequence, delivered it this day in the chapel of Trinity college.

This is no leſs than the ninth literary premium obtained by the ſame gentleman; two for Greek compoſitions, two for Latin, two for Greek and Latin, two for Engliſh, and one for a general examination.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

At Serjeants Inn Hall, eleven of the judges conſulted upon the caſe reſerved at the Old Bailey in September ſeſſion laſt, reſpecting the indictment againſt Renwick Williams, the ſuppoſed Monſter; and nine of the eleven judges were of opinion that the offence, notwithſtanding the finding of the jury, was not within the ſtatute.--This determination declares the offence to be only a miſdemeanor, for which, in all probability, Williams will be indicted at the next ſeſſion at the New Seſſions Houſe.

Oct. 21. A court of common-council was held at Guildhall, when the motion for removing the cenſure paſſed on a member for publiſhing a letter reflecting on the chamberlain for not bringing his accounts before the court, and animadverting on a motion for that purpoſe made by him, being negatived, engroſſed the principal part of the attention of the court.

Mr. Griffiths, the mover of the queſtion, entered into a defence of the member, and was followed by Mr. Dornford.

Several gentlemen obſerved, that taking off the cenſure would be placing it on the court; and as the diſtance from the paſſing of the cenſure to the preſent time was ſuch that many who were then members of the court were not ſo at preſent, it would not be juſtifiable. Some were for the motion being withdrawn, and others for the previous queſtion, which latter being adopted, the queſtion for reſcinding was loſt.

A petition from the common cryer, praying leave to act by deputy, on account of his age, was read, and unanimouſly agreed to; the perſon to be approved by the Lord Mayor.

A letter from the Marine Society was

read, and, after a few words from Mr. Alderman Watſon, a vote for 500l. paſſed unanimouſly.

A number of petitions and reports for renewal of leaſes were read and ordered.

Mr. Dornford and Mr. Dixon ſeverally gave notice of motions intended to be brought forward at the next court.

On the motion of Mr. Deputy Leekey, Mr. John Holmes was appointed to act as ſecond clerk to the court of requeſts, till the vacancy was filled, the deputy making many pertinent remarks why the court ought not to fill the vacancy till a report ſhould come from the general purpoſe committee, who were at this time enquiring into the conduct of ſome of the officers.

The act for raiſing money for the ſupport of the nightly watch was read and paſſed.

Oct. 25. As ſome children were playing in an out-houſe belonging to a butcher in Southampton, they diſcovered ſomething on a beam, which they ſuppoſing to be a cake, took it down and divided it amongſt ſix of them, and immediately ate their reſpective ſhares. A few hours afterwards two of them were taken ill, and in the courſe of the day the other four. This led to an enquiry, when it was diſcovered that they had been eating ſome poiſon mixed with dough, which was prepared for deſtroying rats. Every medical aſſiſtance was immediately given them, which had the deſired effect on five; but the other, who it is ſuppoſed ate a larger quantity than the reſt, died the next day in the greateſt agonies.

Nov. 4. The ſeſſions ended at the Old Bailey, when the following convicts received judgment of death, viz. Joſeph Biggs, alias John Page, William Burbridge, James Sullivan, Geo. Storey, Thomas Dunklin, William Jobbins, Edward Lowe, Edward Ivory, James Royer, James Smith, and Thomas Tyler: and thirty-five were ſentenced to be tranſported for ſeven years.

Nov. 8. Alderman Pickett reſigned the office of Lord Mayor, and John Boydell, Eſq. was ſworn into that office with the uſual ceremony. The new Lord Mayor received the homage of the ſeveral city officers, and Alderman Pickett gave his laſt entertainment at the Manſion Houſe to the new Lord Mayor and aldermen, and the courts of aſſiſtants of the Goldſmiths and Stationers Companies.

London Gazette Extraordinary.

Whitehall, Nov. 4. This morning Mr. reſſins, one of his majeſty's meſſengers ordinary, arrived at the office of his race the Duke of Leeds, his majeſty's rincipal Secretary of State for foreign fairs, with diſpatches from the Right Honourable Alleyne Fitz-Herbert, his majeſty's ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary at the court of Madrid, dated the 24th of October laſt, containing an account that a convention, for terminating the differences which had ariſen with that court, had been agreed upon between his excellency, on the part of his Majeſty, and the Count de Florida Blanca, on the part of the Catholic King; and that the convention was to be ſigned and exchanged by thoſe miniſters on the 27th of the ſame month.

London Gazette Extraordinary.

Whitehall, Nov. 7. This morning one of his Majeſty's meſſengers, diſpatched by the Right Honourable Alleyne Fitz-Herbert, his Majeſty's ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary at the court of Spain, arrived at the office of his Grace the Duke of Leeds, his Majeſty's principal Secretary of State for foreign affairs, with the convention between his Majeſty and the Catholic King, for terminating the differences which had ariſen with that court, which was ſigned at the palace of the Eſcurial on the 28th of October laſt, by Mr. Fitz-Herbert, on the part of his Majeſty, and by the Count de Florida Blanca, on the part of his Catholic Majeſty.

CONVENTION

BETWEEN HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY AND THE KING OF SPAIN.

SIGNED AT THE ESCURIAL THE 28th OF OCTOBER, 1790.

Their Britannic and Catholic Majeſties, being deſirous of terminating, by a ſpeedy and ſolid agreement, the differences which have lately ariſen between the two Crowns, have judged that the beſt way of attaining this ſalutary object would be that of an amicable arrangement, which, ſetting aſide all retroſpective diſcuſſion of the rights and pretenſions of the two parties, ſhould fix their reſpective ſituation for the future, on a baſis conformable to their true intereſts, as well as to the mutual deſire with which their ſaid Majeſties are animated, of eſtabliſhing with each other, in every thing, and in all places, the moſt perfect friendſhip, harmony, and good correſpondence. In this view, they have named and conſtituted for their plenipotentiaries, to wit, on the part of his Britannic Majeſty, Alleyne Fitz-Herbert, Eſq. one of his ſaid Majeſty's Privy Council in Great Britain and Ireland, and his Ambaſſador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to his Catholic Majeſty; and, on the part of his Catholic Majeſty, Don

Joſeph

Joſeph Monino, Count of Florida-Blanca, Knight Grand Croſs of the Royal Spaniſh Order of Charles III. Councillor of State to his ſaid Majeſty, and his principal Secretary of State, and of the diſpatches; who, after having communicated to each other their reſpective full powers, have agreed upon the following Articles.

ARTICLE I.

It is agreed that the buildings and tracts of land, ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of the continent of North America, or on iſlands adjacent to that continent, of which the ſubjects of his Britannick Majeſty were diſpoſſeſſed, about the month of April, 1789, by a Spaniſh officer, ſhall be reſtored to the ſaid Britiſh ſubjects.

ARTICLE II.

And further, that a juſt reparation ſhall be made, according to the nature of the caſe, for all acts of violence or hoſtility which may have been committed, ſubſequent to the month of April, 1789, by the ſubjects of either of the contracting parties againſt the ſubjects of the other; and that, in caſe any of the ſaid reſpective ſubjects ſhall, ſince the ſame period, have been forcibly diſpoſſeſſed of their lands, buildings, veſſels, merchandize, or other property whatever, on the ſaid continent, or on the ſeas or iſlands adjacent, they ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed in the poſſeſſion thereof, or a juſt compenſation ſhall be made to them for the loſſes which they ſhall have ſuſtained.

ARTICLE III.

And, in order to ſtrengthen the bonds of friendſhip, and to preſerve in future a perfect harmony and good underſtanding between the two contracting parties, it is agreed that their reſpective ſubjects ſhall not be diſturbed or moleſted, either in navigating or carrying on their fiſheries in the Pacific Ocean, or in the South Seas, or in landing on the coaſts of thoſe ſeas, in places not already occupied, for the purpoſe of carrying on their commerce with the natives of the country, or of making ſettlements there; the whole ſubject, nevertheleſs, to the reſtrictions and proviſions ſpecified in the three following articles.

ARTICLE IV.

His Britannic Majeſty engages to take the moſt effectual meaſures to prevent the navigation and fiſhery of his ſubjects in the Pacific Ocean, or in the South Seas, from being made a pretext for illicit trade with the Spaniſh ſettlements; and with this view, it is moreover expreſsly ſtipulated, that Britiſh ſubjects ſhall not navigate, or carry on their fiſhery in the ſaid ſeas, within the ſpace of ten ſea leagues from any part of the coaſts already occupied by Spain.

ARTICLE V.

It is agreed that, as well in the places which are to be reſtored to the Britiſh ſubjects, by virtue of the 1ſt Article, as in all other parts of the north weſtern coaſts of North America, or of the iſlands adjacent, ſituated to the north of the parts of the ſaid coaſt already occupied by Spain, wherever the ſubjects of either of the two powers ſhall have made ſettlements ſince the month of April, 1789, or ſhall hereafter make any, the ſubjects of the other ſhall have free acceſs, and ſhall carry on their trade without any diſturbance or moleſtation.

ARTICLE VI.

It is further agreed, with reſpect to the eaſtern and weſtern coaſts of South America, and to the iſlands adjacent, that no ſettlement ſhall be formed hereafter, by the reſpective ſubjects, in ſuch parts of thoſe coaſts as are ſituated to the ſouth of thoſe parts of the ſame coaſts, and of the iſlands adjacent, which are already occupied by Spain: provided that the ſaid reſpective ſubjects ſhall retain the liberty of landing on the coaſts and iſlands ſo ſituated, for the purpoſes of their fiſhery, and of erecting thereon huts, and other temporary buildings, ſerving only for thoſe purpoſes.

ARTICLE VII.

In all caſes of complaint or infraction of the articles of the preſent convention, the officers of either party, without permitting themſelves previouſly to commit any violence or act of force, ſhall be bound to make an exact report of the affair, and of its circumſtances, to their reſpective courts, who will terminate ſuch differences in an amicable manner.

ARTICLE VIII.

The preſent convention ſhall be ratified and confirmed in the ſpace of ſix weeks, to be computed from the day of its ſignature, or ſooner, if it can be done.

In witneſs whereof, we the underſigned plenipotentiaries of their Britannic and Catholic Majeſties, have, in their names, and in virtue of our reſpective full powers, ſigned the preſent convention, and ſet thereto the ſeals of our arms.

Done at the Palace of St. Laurence, the twenty-eighth of October, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety.

ALLEYNE FITZ-HERBERT.
EL CONDE DE FLORIDA BLANCA.
(L. S.)

A co

A curious phenomenon appeared in Hyde-Park the day of the review. The concourſe of people were ſo great, that for ſome miles they formed a circle hundreds deep. The trees were alſo occupied by men, women, and children. In this ſituation, ſeveral thouſand ſmall birds fled alternately from the noiſe of the troops towards the verge of the circle, from whence they fearfully returned again to the troops and ſo *vice verſa* till they were ſo exhauſted, that ſeveral of them fell motionleſs to the ground.

MARRIED.

At Weeford, in Staffordſhire, the Hon. John Colvill, eldeſt ſon of the Right Hon. Lord Colvill, to Miſs Ford, daughter of the late Francis Ford, of the iſland of Barbadoes.

John Glynn, Eſq. of Glynn, in the county of Cornwall, ſon of the late Mr. Serjeant Glynn, to Miſs Worſley, eldeſt daughter of Edward Meux Worſley, Eſq. late of Gatcomb, in the Iſle of Wight.

Lieut. Jones, of the 14th regiment of foot, to Miſs Edgell, eldeſt daughter of Chaſſen Edgell, Eſq. of Keyford-houſe, near Frome.

William Wiſeman Clarke, Eſq. of Ardington, in Berkſhire, to Miſs Coxe, of Buckle-bury.

Henry Loftus Hodſon, Eſq. to Miſs Barbara Miller, of Brompton-row.

Rev. Henry Clutton, rector of Newick in Suſſex, to Miſs Margaret Fonnereau, youngeſt daughter of the late Zach. Phil. Fonnereau, Eſq.

The Rev. J. Nottage, of Eaſt Hanningfield, to Miſs Anne Frances Wakeham, youngeſt daughter of Dr. Wakeham, Dean of Bocking.

At Rainham, in Eſſex, Captain Reynolds, of the 34th regiment of foot, to Miſs Elizabeth Godſalve, only daughter of John Godſalve Croſſe, Eſq. of Great Baddow, in that county.

At Hazeleigh, Robert Unwin, Eſq. of Roſemary-lane, London, to Miſs Polly Clarke, of Danbury.

William Greſley, Eſq. of the Hot Wells, Briſtol, to Miſs Anningſon, of Clifton.

At Shenly, Herts, Charles Martin, Eſq. of Duke-ſtreet, London, to Miſs Oſmond, of Shenly-hill.

Robert Darbey, M. D. of Mancheſter, to Miſs Cotes, of Liverpool.

At Hackney, Mr. Chevalier, ſurgeon, of South-Audley ſtreet, to Miſs Phillips, of Oxford-ſtreet.

At the houſe of Lieutenant-General Elphinſtone, in George-ſtreet, Edinburgh, William Wemyſs, Eſq. of Cuttlehill, to Miſs Eleonora Jean Dalrymple, fifth daughter to Lieutenant-General Elphinſtone.

Mr. Bland, brother to Mrs. Jordan, to Miſs Romanzini, of Drury-lane theatre.

At Wandſworth, Mr. George Tritton, to Miſs Howard.

At Richmond, in Yorkſhire, Anthony Hammond, of Hutton Bonville, near Northallerton, Eſq. to Miſs Jane Cloſe, ſecond daughter of the late John Cloſe, Eſq.

At Hillingdon, the Rev. Dr. Rutherford, maſter of the academy at Uxbridge, to Mrs. Parker, of King-ſtreet, Bloomſbury.

At St. Mary's, Newington, Oſborne Tyldon, Eſq. of Torry-hill, to Miſs Withers, of Dover-place.

At Burton, in Dorſetſhire, Robert Hunter, jun. Eſq. of King's Arms yard, to Miſs Charlotte Hansford, of the above place.

At St. George's church, Hanover-ſquare, Thomas Bligh, Eſq. nephew of the late General Bligh, to Lady Theodoſia Bligh, ſecond daughter of the Counteſs of Darnley.

At Alnham, John Tarleton, of Liverpool, Eſq. to Miſs Collingwood, daughter of Alex. Collingwood, of Unthank, Northumberland.

At St. Martin's church, in the Strand, Alexander Mair, of the Adelphi, Eſq. to Miſs Baronow, of Watford, in Hertfordſhire.

William Chinnery, Eſq. of the Treaſury, to Miſs Treſilian, of Sloane-ſtreet.

Guſtavus Hamilton Spencer, Eſq. to Mrs. Ann Frances Sutherland.

DIED.

At Weſtport, Ireland, the Hon. James Browne, late his majeſty's prime ſerjeant at law, member in the laſt parliament for the borough of Caſtle-bar, and uncle to the Earl of Altamont.

At Hemſworth, aged upwards of ſixty, the Rev. Dr. Wood, vicar of Halifax, and rector of Hemſworth, and alſo one of his majeſty's juſtices of the peace for the Weſt-Riding of Yorkſhire.

The Rev. Mr. John Gage, of Bury, brother to Sir Thomas Gage, bart. a prieſt of the church of Rome.

In the 67th year of her age, Mrs. Bayfield, wife of Mr. Robert Bayfield, of Antingham, near Northwalſham. This lady was remarkable for being accounted one of the beſt horſe-women in England.

At Brompton, Kenneth Mackenzie, Eſq. regiſter of ſeizures of the cuſtoms at Edinburgh,

The Rev. J. Noel, Rector of Steeple Aſton.

In the 95th year of his age, Richard Croſdill, Eſq.

Lately, at his villa, on the banks of the Ionne, in the Catinois, France, M. Hagerup,

gerup, diſtinguiſhed for his anatomical knowledge.

At Bath, John Campbell, Eſq. lieutenant-governor of Plymouth.

In Brook-ſtreet, Bath, Godolphin Rooper, Eſq.

At Twickenham, Mrs. Richbell, widow of the late general Richbell.

Mrs. Loveday, of Oxford Chapel Court, Cavendiſh-ſquare.

At Ayleſbury, after a long declining ſtate of health, Mrs. Chaplain, wife of Mr. Acton Chaplain, clerk of the peace for the county of Buckingham.

The lady of Henry Creed, Eſq. of Hampſtead.

At his houſe at Richmond, in Surrey, William Turner, Eſq. aged 92 years.

In the 72d year of his age, Thomas Johnſon, Eſq, of Woolley, near Bradford, one of his majeſty's juſtices of the Peace for Somerſet and Wilts. He was the only ſurviving brother of the late Lord Biſhop of Worceſter.

Mrs. Goodree, of Seven Oaks, aged 71.

At her lodgings, in Charlotte-ſtreet, Rathbone-place, in her way from Brighton to Bath, Mrs. Chalcraft, of Bath.

In Bath, Benjamin Barter, Eſq. of the kingdom of Ireland.

At her houſe, in Rivers-ſtreet, Bath, in her 83d year, Mrs. Anne Bennet, ſiſter of the late Philip Bennet, Eſq. of Widcomb.

At his houſe in Blagdon, Norcott Yeeles, Eſq.

The Rev. William Hayes, M. A. minor canon of St. Paul's, vicar of Killingham, in Eſſex, and lecturer of Allhallows, Barking, London.

At Coventry, Mr. Thomas Little, banker, of that place, and one of the receivers-general for the county of Warwick.

On board his majeſty's ſhip Magnificent, enſign John Savage Wogan, of the 22th regiment, doing duty as marines.

At Knareſborough, Dr. Henry Browneker Wilſon, who, after attending many poor families gratis, caught the fatal fever of which he died in the 28th year of his age.

Samuel Hunn, Eſq. an alderman of Plymouth, and many years maſter cooper of his majeſty's victualling-office there.

At his houſe at Brook-green, Hammerſmith, Joſeph Hitchcox, Eſq. aged 73.

Captain James Glinn, of the ſhip Kitty.

The Rev. Cecil J. Fairfax, vicar of Mertin cum Groſton, near Boroughbridge, and formerly fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.

Dropped down dead, as ſhe was ſitting at breakfaſt in her apartment, on Brook-green, Hammerſmith, Miſs Bird, daughter of Richard Bird, Eſq. of Woburn, Bedfordſhire.

At his houſe in Edinburgh, John Macarthur, profeſſor of the ancient martial muſic of Scotland, and piper to the Highland ſociety.

In his 71ſt year, the Right Hon. Lord James Manners, youngeſt brother to the late John Duke of Rutland, uncle to the celebrated Marquis of Granby, and great uncle to the laſt Duke.

Mr. Roger Shackleton, one of the common-council of the ward of Bread-ſtreet.

George Stainforth, Eſq. of Stillington, near York.

On the 14th inſtant, at his houſe in Rednock, in the county of Perth, John Graham of Duchray, late Captain of the 42d regiment of foot.

At his lodgings, in Bedford-ſtreet, Mr. Edwin, Comedian, of Covent-garden Theatre.

At Bath, John Thornton, Eſq. of Clapham, in Surry.

At Old Aberdeen, in his 67th year, John Farquharſon, M. D. formerly of Charleſton, South Carolina, and lately of London.

At his houſe, in Southampton-row, Bloomſbury, George Dunbar, Eſq. in the 69th year of his age.

Mrs. Milnes, wife of Mr. Milnes, ſurgeon, of Newark upon Trent.

At Langeith's, Cardiganſhire, in the 78th year of his age, the Rev. Daniel Rowland.

At Dunfermline, the Rev. Mr. James Thomſon, miniſter of the goſpel there, in the 92d year of his age, and 63d of his miniſtry.

At his houſe at Frimly, in Surrey, Mr. Richard Cobbett, glazier to his majeſty.

James Gildart, Eſq. aged 81, one of the ſenior aldermen of Liverpool.

Mr. Jonathan Green, Poſtmaſter of Exeter; he dropped down ſuddenly and expired immediately.

M. Wigbolt Sliger, preſident of the courts of Holland and Frieſland, &c. aged 76 years.

The Princeſs Dowager of Stolberg Worningerode, born Princeſs of Anhalt Coethen, at Glukſbourg, in the 64th year of her age.

At Preſton, in Lancaſhire, W. Blackburne, Eſq. of London, architect.

Mrs. Bradney, wife of Mr. Joſeph Bradney, of Bridge-ſtreet, Black-friars.

In Jamaica, Robert Craſkell, Eſq.

The Rev. Dr. Lort.

BANKRUPTS.

John Baverſtock, of St. Paul's-Church Yard, chinaman. James Clapp, of Whitelion-ſtreet, in the Pariſh of St. James's, Clerkenwell, Middleſex, carpenter and builder. Anthony Garforth, now or late of Hartlington, in the pariſh of Burnſall, Yorkſhire, butcher.

[*Remainder in our next.*]

PRICE OF STOCKS IN OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1790.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per Cent. Reduc.	3 per Cent. Consol.	4 per Cent. Consol.	5 per Cent. Navy.	Long Ann.	Short ditto.	India Stock.	India Ann.	India Bonds.	S. Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	3per Cent 1751.	New Ann.	New Navy.	Exch. Bills.	Tontine	Lottery Tickets.
21	172½	74½	74½	97½ 94	111¾	21¾	12		66¼	45 a 40		73¼			4¼ dif.			15 12 6
23	171½	73½	74½		111¾	21⅝	11								3⅝ dif.			15 11 0
25				93¼ 94	111¾	21⅝				39 pr.					4 dif.			15 11 6
27	171½	73½	74½		111¾	21⅝	12			39 pr.					4 dif.			15 12 0
29		73⅝	74½	93¼ 94						39 a 40		73¼			3½			15 12 6
30		73⅝	74½							43 pr.					3½			15 12 0
2					111¾	21¼				43 pr.	88				2¼ dif.			15 16 0
4					111¾	21⅛		16½		46 a 52								15 19 6
6				98 96⅞	114¾	21⅝				84 86					1⅞			16 1 6
8				91¼	117 118¼	22⅝	12		71½	85 81		73¼			1⅝			16 4 6
11	182¼	73½	78½	98⅛ 99	117 118¾	23	12⅛		72	92		78			1⅝			16 6 0
13	188½	73½	78½		118¾	23	12		72¾	96		78¼			1⅝			16 8 0
16		78½	79½	99¼	119	23	12		73	99					1⅝			
18		78½	79½	99¾														

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY in LONDON, for November, 1790.

By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN.

Height of the Barometer and Thermometer with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer. Inches, and 100th Parts. 8 o'Clock Morning.	Barometer. 11 o'Clock Night.	Thermometer. Fahrenheit's. 8 o'Clock Morning.	Noon.	11 o'Clock. Night.	Weather in Novemb. 1790.
O. 27	29 75	29 64	47	53	46	Cloudy
28	29 56	29 58	46	48	46	Rain
29	29 58	29 71	46	48	42	Cloudy
30	29 19	29 68	42	46	42	Ditto
31	29 72	29 82	39	4	36	Fair
N. 1	29 65	29 73	44	52	46	Rain
2	29 23	29 53	46	52	44	Fair
3	29 64	29 51	42	50	48	Rain
4	29 58	29 70	48	53	46	Cloudy
5	29 79	29 72	48	53	46	Ditto
6	29 56	29 55	50	52	50	Rain
7	29 53	29 62	44	46	42	Cloudy
8	29 71	29 84	40	48	44	Fair
9	29 90	30	42	47	44	Cloudy
10	30 1	29 84	43	46	46	Ditto
11	29 84	29 90	45	47	44	Ditto
12	29 96	30	44	47	44	Ditto
13	30 2	30 11	42	52	44	Fair
14	30 11	30 14	43	47	43	Cloudy
15	30 15	30 8	40	45	36	Fair
16	30 1	29 91	36	4	42	Ditto
17	29 83	29 70	40	43	37	Ditto
18	29 56	29 29	33	44	40	Cloudy
19	29	29 1	46	47	40	Rain
20	29 8	29 13	49	53	48	Ditto
21	28 93	29 8	44	49	45	Ditto
22	29 17	29 29	46	50	44	Ditto
23	29 48	29 64	44	47	38	Cloudy
24	29 70	29 67	36	43	45	Fair
25	29 58	29 24	47	51	52	Rain
26	29 36	29 88	49	51	38	Cloudy

Corn-Exchange, London.

RETURNS of CORN and GRAIN.

From Oct. 16, to Oct. 21, 1790.

	Quarters.	Price. £.	s.	d.	Avr. Pr. per. Qr. £.	s.	d.
Barley	5499	6275	7	10	1	2	9
Beans	2765	3387	13	5	1	4	6
Malt	3615	6307	5	6	1	14	10
Oats	9462	8900	6	0		18	9
Peafe	1357	2414	5	4	1	15	6
Rye	62	86	14	9	1	7	11
R. Seed	125	268	12	10	2	2	11
Wheat	5223	11678	1	2	2	4	8
Bigg							

I. Cornet sculp.t

Abbé Chappé

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